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The primary data collected and analyzed in conjunction with this study were measurements of self-concept taken on a select sample of 428 fourth- and sixth-grade migrant children in New Mexico, 90% of whom were Spanish-surname migrants. These self-concept scores were correlated with scores from measures of intelligence and achievement; these findings were contrasted with the findings of 2 other studies using the same instruments and involving similar groups of educationally disadvantaged children from different ethnic backgrounds. Chi-square, "t" test, and Pearson Correlational techniques were employed in the analysis of relevant data. Conclusions of the study suggested a tendency toward a positive correlation of self-concept with other variables measured. In addition, it was found that the New Mexico students, responding to the instruments used, generally had lower self-concept scores, lower mean grade placements, and rated lower on the total I.Q. index than did white students in a Georgia study; but, the New Mexico students generally rated higher on the same instruments than did Negro students participating in a Louisiana study. (EV)

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-CONCEPT, INTELLECTUAL ABILITY, ACHIEVEMENT, AND MANIFEST ANXIETY AMONG SELECT GROUPS OF SPANISH-SURNAME MIGRANT STUDENTS IN NEW MEXICO

By
Geneva B. Gillmann

DISSERTATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Education in Curriculum and Instruction
in the Graduate School of
The University of New Mexico
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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to measure and analyze the self-concepts of select groups of fourth- and sixth-grade children in New Mexico, to correlate these self-concept scores with scores from measures of intelligence and achievement, and to compare and contrast these findings with the findings of two other studies using the same instruments of measurement and involving population samples with similar educational disadvantages.

The 428 students participating in this study were enrolled in five elementary schools in the lower Rio Grande valley, where the agricultural economy of the area is based on crops which require hand labor, and where the unskilled mobile class is predominant. Ninety per cent of the students responding to instruments used in this study have Spanish surnames, and many spent their earlier years in Mexico.

A self-concept battery of instruments, including Self-Concept - Self-Ideal, Child's Self-Description Scale, and the Child's Manifest Anxiety Scale, were administered to all children who were present in the fourth and sixth grades in the five schools on a given day. The Stanford Achievement Test and California Test of Mental Maturity were administered on other dates at one-week intervals.

In statistical treatment of data, means, standard deviations, frequency distributions, chi-square, "t" test for significance of differences, and Pearson Correlation Coefficients between self-concept and other variables were obtained. Data were compared to findings of similar studies involving disadvantaged white children in Georgia and disadvantaged Negro children in Louisiana in parallel grades by means of comparison tables and "t" tests for significance in differences between mean self-concept scores.

Although the correlations between the mean self-concept scores, intelligence, and academic achievement were not as highly significant as might be anticipated from the review of literature, the tendency toward a positive correlation of self-concept with other variables supports the research findings of others that self-concept is closely related to all behavior.

In comparing the findings of this study with those of the Bledsoe and Garrison (1963) and Henton and Johnson (1964) studies, it was found that the New Mexico students, responding to the instruments used, generally had lower self-concept scores, lower mean grade placements, and rated lower on the total I.Q. index than did the disadvantaged white students in the Georgia study; but, the New Mexico students generally rated higher on the same instruments than did the disadvantaged Negro students participating in the Louisiana study.

On the basis of the data gathered and its statistical treatment, the investigator concluded that the child's perception of self and subsequent behavior and performance are closely related to community and family mores and general welfare. Based on the findings of this study, it appears that self-concepts of children are affected by poverty, minority group membership, language deficiencies, and the persistent problems associated with migration.

Future research involving Spanish-surname migrant students and concerned with structured programs for the development of positive self-concepts and the consistent use of positive mental health practices in the classroom, might reveal significant differences between mean self-concept scores in the pre-test and post-test data.

Based on the findings of this study, the investigator also concluded that the development of positive self-concepts, which appear to be prerequisite to academic achievement, should be a major objective of every educational program concerned with the development of productive citizens.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

I. INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

Nowhere in the world today, nor in time past, can an educational system be found which is charged with greater responsibilities than the American schools. Commager emphasized this idea when he stated that, "no other people ever demanded so much of education as have the American people. None other is served so well by its school and education." (Thayer, 1960). Even though the American schools are considered to have been better than those in most other areas of the world, the alarmingly high percentage of dropouts, as well as the increasing crime rate across our land, has caused educators to pause and consider the shortcomings of our system. Dedicated educators have been willing to pursue detailed studies and lengthy, involved surveys in order to contribute to an understanding of areas of weaknesses in our attempt to educate "all the children of all the people," and to design programs which will be most beneficial both to the masses and to specific groups and individuals in need of special aids to learning.

Commager stated that schools have accepted the "momentous responsibility of inspiring a people to pledge and hold allegiance to the principles of democracy, nationalism, Americanism and egalitarianism." (Thayer, 1960). In holding these principles, questions have arisen among educators as to the meaning of democracy and how its values can best be imparted to the young. Phenix has defined democracy as "a comprehensive way of life." (Phenix, 1961). He feels that great educators have assumed the responsibility of education as a "moral enterprise." One writer suggests that "America's chief superiority over the Communist world lies in our insistence on the dignity of the individual." (Allen, 1966). This dignity has not been inherent in the life of the migrant child, nor in the lives of many other culturally and economically deprived youngsters. It has been noted that, "Even in the absence of any thoroughgoing study (among migrant students), the symptoms of frustration, the bitterness and disorganization are easy to see." (Moore, 1965).

As an antidote to some of the deficits in learning, innovations in the form of teaching machines, computer programming, contingency management, and an avalanche of instructional supplies and materials have flooded the educational market. Often these innovations have helped; often they have only served to confuse rather than to teach. It was noted by Counts that, "The teacher must bridge the gap between school and society." (Counts, 1932). John Dewey sought to bridge that gap and to bring about the achievement of social objectives as prerequisites to cognitive objectives. Dewey hoped to turn the school in the "direction of affinity with real life situations . . . teaching students, not subjects . . . or of educating the 'whole child'." (Power, 1965). Almost every program for the education of children includes the objective "to improve the pupil's self-image." It is with this social objective in mind that this study has been developed.

Since the Seventeenth Century when Descartes first discussed the "Cogito," or the self, as a thinking substance, as a theoretical construct, the self has been subjected to vigorous examinations by such thinkers as Leibnitz, Locke, Hume, and others. (Hamachek, 1965). During the first four decades of the Twentieth Century, psychological attention centered primarily on behaviorism, and the study of self all but disappeared. Recently, the self has come to be the center of studies involving implications for understanding and predicting human behavior. Many studies have been based on assumptions that the "self-concept characteristics are antecedent to the cognitive behavior . . . and this relationship is basically a matter of the influence of motivation upon learning." (Wylie, 1961).

The Cowen, Heilizer, and Axelrod studies (1955) were especially designed to study the relationship between performance and discrepancies between the real and the ideal self-concept. D. S. Cartwright investigated Roger's (1951) idea that experiences will be ignored or given distorted symbolization if they are in consistent conflict with the structure of self. Cartwright's study concluded that there was significantly less recall of objects "less like me" than of objects "like me," or those which were deemed to be within the purview of the structure of self. (Wylie, 1960). Jersild stated that a person "learns, significantly, only those things which he perceives as being necessary in the maintenance of, or enhancement of, the structure of self." (Jersild, 1952).

Empirical studies of self-concepts of adults are few, and investigation also reveals a dearth of literature concerning empirical studies pertaining to self-concepts of children and the resulting implications for education. However, psychological literature of the last two decades shows a marked resurgence of interest in the development of the self-concept and the effect of self-perception on learning. It has been noted that there are many positive trends, but there are also "many contradictions among findings and ambiguities in results." (Wylie, 1961). Ruth Wylie insists that the study of self-concept is an important and worth-while venture, and that further studies are particularly needed with children.

Sociologists and psychologists have long been aware of the personality deficits among certain cultures. Riesman noted that:

> A culture under certain conditions, during a period of time, can be said to be an open system in a state of stable but moving equilibrium: that is to say, it maintains a boundary, accepts inputs and produces outputs at approximately equal rates, and changes continuously but gradually in internal structure. The "marginal man," indeed, is an ideal type constructed to label persons caught precisely in the vortex of such (for whom the problems of culture and ethnic identification assume major significance) dilemmas, unable to forsake the old culture, yet because of experience unable to be happy in it either. (Riesman, 1950).

The migrant parent and child are usually persons found in such a dilemma. A psychologist in Suffolk, Long Island, has predicted an increase in criminal behavior among Negro migrants. He bases this prediction on the high incident of psychosis among migrant children of this ethnic group. Among causes to which this high percentage of psychosis may be attributed, the psychologist lists "feelings of frustration, loss of hope, and withdrawal as the child becomes aware of his place in the world." (Allen, 1966). Malzberg and Lee made a detailed report on mental disease among migrants, and indicated the same behavioral characteristics. (Malzberg, 1956).

In his study of the plight of migrants, Steve Allen stated:

> We have no right to insulate ourselves against the unpleasant realities by thinking of the poor in statistical terms, or supposing that they are generally like ourselves except that they do not have much money. To be poor in this (the migrant's) world is by no means merely a matter of having less money than one's

> neighbor. . . . It is to be without decent clothing, without enough food or the proper kind of food, to be without decent shelter, and frequently, to exist in a blind alley of despair where one sees no hope of finding a way out. To be poor is also to lack the respect of others and finally to have one's respect for one's self weakened. (Allen, 1966).

These reports and investigations indicate the need for studies which might shed some light on the academic and social deficiencies of Spanish-surname migrant children in New Mexico, and some projected implications for their education. It has been suggested that "the significant self will be reaffirmed when it is realized that changes in the self-picture are an inevitable part of both outcomes and conditions of learning in the classroom." (Staines, 1965). Education can no longer afford the "frustration, bitterness and disorganization" of its migrant students.

II. THE PROBLEM

The primary purpose of this investigation was to measure self-concepts and to study the relationship between self-concept, intellectual ability, academic achievement, and manifest anxiety among a select group of fourth- and sixth-grade Spanish-surname migrant students in the state of New Mexico. A secondary purpose was to survey available literature pertinent to the relationship between self-concept and education. A further purpose was to survey available literature concerned with the effects of migration on self-concepts, and with policies and practices in the educational programs for migrant children. The final purpose was to compare the findings of the study to the results of other studies, using the same instruments and involving similar disadvantaged populations in Georgia (1963) and Louisiana (1964). The statistical analysis of the data, and the summary and conclusions of the investigation, strengthen the proposals of many educators that the child's self-concept is a crucial variable in predicting his success or failure in school and in later life experiences, and that section of the study includes implications for the education of migrant children in New Mexico.

III. PROCEDURE

The self-concept consists of a configuration of traits which are subject to change. Various attempts have been made to measure this concept as it appears at a given time. Combs noted that "since the self-concept is an organization or phenomenal field, it is not open to direct observation. To study the self-concept, it is necessary to infer its nature from observations of the behavior of the individual." (Combs and Soper, 1963). It has been noted that we get "more positive and consistent results from studies which involve scores on self-report instruments than on instruments based on behavior ratings by teacher or peer groups, degrees of diagnosed pathology or projective test scores which are assumed to be relevant to adjustment, such as the Rorschach, Thematic Apperception Tests, and sentence completion." (Wylie, 1961). Studies using self-report instruments included several cooperative research projects. Bledsoe and Garrison (1965) and Henton and Johnson (1964) were among those whose studies involved disadvantaged children. These studies used the Self-Concept Scale, the Child Self-Description Scale, and Child's Scale of Manifest Anxiety instruments to measure self-concept and self-ideal concepts among disadvantaged fourth- and sixth-grade white school children in Georgia, and disadvantaged fourth- and sixth-grade Negro school children in Louisiana. The California Test of Mental Maturity and Stanford Achievement Tests were used to measure intelligence quotient and academic achievement. The Bledsoe and Garrison studies indicated low positive correlation between self-concept and performance among disadvantaged white children, while the Henton and Johnson studies showed significantly higher correlation between the same two indices among the Negro student population studied. No comparable studies of the Spanish-surname student population have been found in surveys of available literature.

In this investigation, the following instruments were administered to all fourth- and sixth-grade students present on given days in five elementary schools in the lower Rio Grande valley: The Self-Concept Scale, The Child Self-Description Scale, The California Test of Mental Maturity, The Stanford Achievement Test, and The Child's Manifest Anxiety Scale. Where it was considered necessary, detailed descriptions of the tests and methods of scoring are presented with the analysis of data.

IV. DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

It seems that personality theories which stress the self, and the research studies which have followed, have raised more questions than they have answered. Ruth Wylie lists the following limiting empirical evidence supporting the theories of self:

1. The lack of proper scientific characteristics of the theories themselves;
2. The inevitable difficulties encountered in formulating relevant, well-controlled research in a new area;
3. Individual research in a new area is not part of a planned research program; and therefore, cannot be easily synthesized;
4. Unavoidable methodological flaws. (Wylie, 1961).

A further limitation was imposed in this study by geographical boundaries. The study was confined to a select group of students enrolled in elementary schools in a given area. No effort was made to correlate the findings with self-concept scores of other Spanish-surname children or other migrant children.

Wylie insists that "these (self-concept) theories are concerned with important issues," and that there is need to develop lower-order hypotheses which "begin to deal with these issues in a more restricted, manageable way." (Wylie, 1961).

V. HYPOTHESES TO BE TESTED

The following research hypotheses would seem to be appropriate guides for this study. For the purposes of facility in statistical analysis, each of these hypotheses will follow the null hypothesis which will state that no difference will be found. The data will be compared to Cooperative Research Projects by Bledsoe and Garrison (1963) and Henton and Johnson (1964).

Self-Concept Hypotheses:

1. The self-concepts of fourth-grade Spanish-surname boys are not different from those of sixth-grade Spanish-surname boys.
2. The self-concepts of fourth-grade Spanish-surname girls are not different from those of sixth-grade Spanish-surname girls.
3. The self-concepts of fourth-grade Spanish-surname boys are not different from those of fourth-grade Spanish-surname girls.

4. The self-concepts of sixth-grade Spanish-surname boys are not different from those of sixth-grade Spanish-surname girls.

Self-Description Hypotheses:

1. In describing characteristics "most like" and "least like" themselves, the items selected by fourth- and sixth-grade boys and girls will not be significantly different from that to be expected by chance.
2. In describing characteristics "most like" and "least like" themselves, the patterns of choices by boys in the sample will not be significantly different from those by girls in the sample.
3. In describing characteristics "most like" and "least like" themselves, the patterns of choices by fourth-grade pupils will not be significantly different from those of sixth-grade pupils.

Relationship Hypotheses:

1. There is no significant relationship between measures of self-concepts and academic achievement among fourth-grade Spanish-surname migrant students.
2. There is no significant relationship between measures of self-concept and intellectual ability among fourth-grade Spanish-surname migrant students.
3. There is no significant relationship between measures of self-concept and academic achievement among sixth-grade Spanish-surname migrant students.
4. There is no significant relationship between measures of self-concept and intellectual ability among sixth-grade Spanish-surname migrant students.

5. There is no significant relationship between measures of self-concept and manifest anxiety among fourth-grade Spanish-surname migrant students.

6. There is no significant relationship between measures of self-concept and manifest anxiety among sixth-grade Spanish-surname migrant students.

Comparison Hypotheses:

1. The self-concepts of Spanish-surname migrant fourth-grade boys are not significantly different from those of disadvantaged white fourth-grade boys.

2. The self-concepts of Spanish-surname migrant fourth-grade boys are not significantly different from those of disadvantaged Negro fourth-grade boys.

3. The self-concepts of Spanish-surname migrant fourth-grade girls are not significantly different from those of disadvantaged white fourth-grade girls.

4. The self-concepts of Spanish-surname migrant fourth-grade girls are not significantly different from those of disadvantaged Negro fourth-grade girls.

5. The self-concepts of Spanish-surname migrant sixth-grade boys are not significantly different from those of disadvantaged white sixth-grade boys.

6. The self-concepts of Spanish-surname migrant sixth-grade boys are not significantly different from those of disadvantaged Negro sixth-grade boys.

7. The self-concepts of Spanish-surname migrant sixth-grade girls are not significantly different from those of disadvantaged white sixth-grade girls.

8. The self-concepts of Spanish-surname migrant sixth-grade girls are not significantly different from those of disadvantaged Negro sixth-grade girls.

Statistical Analysis of Data

Frequency distributions, means, standard deviations, and Pearson correlation coefficients were secured for the four groups studied. The groups are represented by A (fourth-grade boys), B (fourth-grade girls), C (sixth-grade boys), and D (sixth-grade girls). The hypotheses previously stated will be tested statistically by comparison of means, the "t" test of differences in means, correlations and chi square values for variance of frequency of responses to the Child Self-Description instrument.

VI. ORGANIZATION OF REMAINDER OF THE STUDY

A review of literature related to self-concept is reported in the next chapter. This review includes further definitions, report on the development of the self-concept, discrepancy between self-concepts and ideal self-concepts, and methods of measuring attitudes toward self and one's place in the environment.

Chapter III includes a review of literature related to migration and education, and the effects of migration on self-concepts. Presentation and statistical analysis of data is reported in Chapter IV, and a summary of findings and implications for education appear in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO SELF-CONCEPT

I. INTRODUCTION

As a child grows and develops, he learns about himself, his environment, and his place in the world. The self-learning is "intensely personal, is in a large part private, is heavily symbolic and often illogical and is of vital importance to both private happiness and public behavior." (McCandless, 1967). All of the forces which act upon a child influence the self-concept, and no one can completely know the self of another. Each individual lives with himself in his own private world of experience; however, there has been the constant quest by man to understand himself and others; and out of this quest has grown much human thought, including philosophy and psychology. Man has long held the hope of answering questions which are basic to self-understanding. Among these questions are: "Who am I?, What am I?, How did I come to be this way?, and Why am I?" (McCandless, 1967).

William James gave much attention to the concept of the inner self, devoting an entire chapter in his Psychology to this concept, and "as psychology evolved from philosophy as a separate entity, the self, as a related construct, moved along with it." (Hamachek, 1965). However, with the declining influence of the introspectionists, and the rising tides of behaviorism, the study of the inner self, as psychological construct, was given much less attention during the second, third and fourth decades of this century.

Beginning near the middle of the Twentieth Century, a renewed interest in the self has evolved, and evidence of this may be noted in the work and writings of Lecky (1945), Snygg and Combs (1949), Rogers (1948 and 1951), Jersild (1952), and Maslow (1954). These writings were largely concerned with the role of the conscious or phenomenal self. Freud (1950) and psycho-analytical students became concerned and gave attention to the unconscious self of non-phenomenal constructs. A large number of studies have been conducted and books and articles written on self-concept. Ruth Wylie (1961) noted 48 books, 128 articles, and 120 unpublished dissertations and dissertation abstracts on the subject of self-concepts. This study is concerned with the phenomenal or conscious self-concept.

II. DEFINITIONS OF SELF-CONCEPT

Before examining research related to self-concept, let us examine some definitions of this phenomenal construct. Jersild states: "The self is a composite of thoughts and feelings which constitute a person's awareness of his individual existence, his conception of who and what he is."

(Jersild, 1952). Perkins described self-concept as "those perceptions, beliefs, feelings, attitudes and values which the individual views as describing himself." (Perkins, 1958). According to Kinch, "the self-concept is the individual's conception of himself as it emerges from social interaction and, in turn, guides or influences the behavior of the individual." (Kinch, 1963). Mead and others considered self-conception to be "a function of the individual's sense of personal worth and adequacy and his evaluation of the attitudes of others toward him." (Mead, 1934). Combs stated: "We mean by the self-concept, the ways in which an individual characteristically sees himself. This is the way he 'feels' about himself." (Combs, 1962). English used two major meanings of self: "(1) the self as an agent or doer; and (2) the self as an object of perception, or the self as a knower of self." (English and English, 1958). A definition, very similar but differing in self-evaluation from that of Combs, is offered by McCandless. The self-concept may be defined as "how a person sees himself, or how he evaluates himself with respect to certain characteristics or attributes." (McCandless, 1961).

Much of the revival of interest in study of the self can be credited to James' early writings. In consideration of this subject, James defined the self broadly as "being all that a man can call his own . . . not only his body and his psychic powers, but his clothes and his house, his wife and his children, his ancestors and friends, his reputation and works, his land and houses and yacht and bank account." (James, 1950 edition of 1890 book). For James, the self included the physical, the social and the spiritual self, the feelings of self and processes of self-preservation and self-seeking. (Auger, 1966). Many of the earlier studies related to self-concept were centered around the self-preservation and self-seeking components. More recent studies have stressed the "feeling" component as a directive for understanding behavior.

III. DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-CONCEPT

A child is not born with a self-concept, but he begins to form this concept as he learns about himself and the other beings in the world with him. This realization may come even before he is conscious that he is hungry, cold or wet. (Bledsoe and Garrison, 1963). The original image of self that the child forms is in response to reactions of the family circle. The ideas of self are formulated in relation to the behavior of the people around him and the reaction of the people of the immediate environment to the child's behavior. (Gordon, 1959). If the infant is kept comfortable, and if responses to his cries relieve hunger and pain, he begins to feel that he has adequate control of his environment and that he is a valuable being to merit such comfort. If long periods of discomfort persist, and the food supply is inadequate or unsatisfying, the child begins to feel that he is not worthy of concern and that he has little environmental control.

Allport states that the child develops a concept of self in four stages:

1. The Early Self - During this period, the child develops a sense of bodily "me" a self identity. The capacity to experience self-esteem and pride increases with maturation in these years. During the years of the early self, the child's ability to go beyond the complete egocentricity of infancy develops and he moves to stages of appreciation of the world about him and to a sensitivity to the reactions of other people.
2. Self As Doer - Between the ages of six and twelve.
3. Adolescent Self - The self of emerging capacity is developed. The child has the ability to plan and to implement his plans.
4. Adult Self - Age of fruition. During this period, one may observe a synthesis of all the states of relevance to the self which we experience. The wanting, striving, willing and planning functions are united. (Allport, 1960).

Allport feels that during the period of the "early self," the foundations are laid for the goals, purposes, and the responsibilities of adulthood.

Anderson also believes that the self-image is formed early in life as a result of significant environmental stimuli, and the inter-personal struggle for survival determines immediate behavior. (Anderson, 1952).

Shobean (1957) found from a survey of literature pertaining to the self-concept, and from empirical studies, that the family has an influence on the child which persists throughout his life and that the experiences of the early period of the child's life contribute significantly to the adjustment of the child. The stability of the self-concept rating is more significantly related to acceptance by parents than with only maternal acceptance; therefore, the child who is denied the privilege of the influence of the male figure during these years operates under a handicap from the beginning. Tatum (1957) concluded that there was a significant relationship between parental acceptance and the way a child regards himself and the way he is regarded by his peers. The evaluation by the parents, or significant others in the life of the child, affects the child's evaluation of himself. Murphy states that:

> The more closely we look at the matter, the more probable it appears that most human adjustments are in some degree adjustments not to an external situation alone, but to a perceptual whole of which self is a part, a self in-situation field. (Murphy, 1947).

Snygg and Combs (1949) suggest that the individual is affected by the phenomenal field in which he exists, and his behavior is determined by how he perceives that field. This perception of self within one's own phenomenal field does not become static at the end of childhood, but, according to

Jersild, "in a healthy person, a discovery of self continues as long as he lives." (Jersild, 1952). Jersild also reports that one of the most important factors influencing the child's view of himself is the "significant person or persons in his life . . . as he is appraised by significant others, so he begins to see himself." (Jersild, 1952). Jersild concludes that not only what is said by significant others and what they do, but the child's perception of what they think, feel, or do affects the child's development of self-concept.

Syngg and Combs, Lecky, and Rogers have been called the phenomenological theorists because of the emphasis they place on the conscious self-concept as a prime determiner of behavior. (Auger, 1966). Rogers has advanced the more fully developed theory of personality which includes the following components:

> (1) The organism, which is the complete individual;
> (2) The phenomenal field, which is the totality of conscious experience; and
> (3) The self, which is a separate and distinct part of the phenomenal field. (Rogers, 1951)

Rogers further states that the self possesses the following major properties:

> (1) The self is a product of the organism's interaction with its environment;
> (2) The self, since it exists in a phenomenal field, is capable of distorting perceptions;
> (3) The self seeks to maintain consistency in the organism's behavior;
> (4) The self strives for consistency;

(5) The self is threatened by experiences which are not consistent with its structure; and
(6) The self may undergo change as a result of maturation. (Rogers, 1951).

It has been found in several studies that the person who accepts self is also predisposed to the acceptance of others and to a more positive attitude toward his own future achievements in relation to the world and his place in society in general. Therefore, the child's self-acceptance is related to his social acceptance and his personal adjustment. Koppitz found that a child who has learned to accept himself because he was treated with affection and respect, will tend to be friendly and loving toward others. However, if the child has come to think of himself as unloved, unrespected, and inferior because he has known only rejection and punishment, the child will tend to reject others and to become hostile toward his environment. These findings would suggest that the immediate environment and, particularly, parental attitudes have significant effects upon the child's self-evaluation and subsequent behavior. (Koppitz, 1957). In a study involving children from six to twelve years of age, Levine and Wardell (1962) found that self-awareness of children who were socially and economically underprivileged and poor students differed from the self-concepts of students who achieved on a higher academic level. The views of the future of these two groups also differed widely.

Wylie states that there are no longitudinal data on which to base a descriptive development of the self-concept, and few studies have included the origins of the self-concept. However, in the absence of longitudinal data and studies of origin of the self-concept, observation and self-report studies have contributed much to our knowledge of the development of awareness of self. Helper related self-concepts among boys were affected by reinforcement, in the form of praise, from the father. (Wylie, 1961).

Sullivan and Jersild suggest that the individual's self-concept appears to be a by-product of other learnings. Jersild states:

> The development is influenced strongly by his relationships with other people. The development of the self is influenced by the child's growing powers of perception, and in time, by his ability to imagine, to form large and comprehensive concepts, to appreciate values and commitments and to take a stand for or against. (Jersild, 1962).

As the child matures, he comes to differentiate between his own desires and attitudes and those of "significant others" in his life. Jersild describes this period:

> A very important feature of the self occurs when the child begins to recognize differences between his own purposes and intentions and the intentions of others who deliberately or unknowingly further or oppose his intentions. The age at which a child becomes able to attribute friendly intentions or hostile or forbidding intentions to other persons we do not know . . . but once the child has achieved the ability to attribute purpose and intentions to the acts of others, this ability will have profound and pervasive influence on the development of the self-system. (Jersild, 1952).

Auger states that "the reactions of others to the child's overtures at this time appear to be very important in terms of the positive or negative valences he subsequently attributes to his rapidly developing self-concept." (Auger, 1966). According to Baughman and Welsh, the child goes about building his self-concept in the following manner:

> He has no innate value system; he cannot observe himself directly, nor can he compare himself objectively with other children of the same age. He can, however, observe how other people respond to him; and what he notices, in effect, tells him whether he is a worthy person who merits love and affection or an unworthy person who does not. (Baughman and Welsh, 1962).

Miyamoto and Dornbush concluded that "the response, or at least the attitude of others is related to self-conception; but the subjects' perception of that response is even more closely related." (Miyamoto and Dornbush, 1956). They also point out that the individual's self-concept is more closely related to his estimate of the generalized attitude toward him than to the perceived attitudes of individual members of the group. However, this is not necessarily true in the pupil-teacher relationship. Perkins found that teachers' perceptions of children's images of themselves are generally positively and significantly related to the children's expressed self-concepts. He states that "a knowledge of how the child sees himself in various situations is helpful to parents and teachers because it enables them to understand more clearly the child's past behavior and to anticipate how he will react in similar future situations." (Perkins, 1957).

However, the child does not develop a single perception of self; the concept which he develops consists of reactions to, or assimilation of, the responses of others to himself, and the persisting ways he sees himself in life situations which he faces or might face. (Perkins, 1957). It has been noted by others that teacher perception influences children's self-concepts. Davidson and Lang closely examined how the self is influenced in classroom settings. Eighty-nine boys and 114 girls attending fourth, fifth, and sixth grades of a New York City public school participated in the study. The children represented a wide range in cultural and academic backgrounds, and were divided into three groups according to socio-economic status. However, because of the apparent difficulty of some of the "trait words" used in the test, children were chosen only from classes which were known to have better readers. The children responded to a list of thirty-five adjectives in terms of "I think I am" and "My teacher thinks I am." The children were also rated by their teachers for achievement and on a number of behavioral characteristics. The major findings were:

1. The children's perception of their teachers' feelings toward them correlated positively and significantly with self-perception. The child with the more favorable self-image was the one who more likely than not perceived his teacher's feelings toward him more favorably.

2. The more positive the children's perception of their teachers' feelings, the better was their academic achievement and the more desirable their classroom behavior as rated by their teachers.

3. Further, children in the upper and middle social class groups perceived their teachers' feelings toward them more favorably than did the children in the lower social class group.

4. Social class position was also found to be positively related with achievement in school.

5. However, even when the favorability index data were reanalyzed separately for each social class and for each achievement category, the mean favorability index declined with decline in achievement level, regardless of social class position; and similarly, the mean favorability index declined with social class regardless of achievement level.

6. Girls generally perceived their teachers' feelings more favorably than did the boys.

7. Finally, there were some significant classroom differences in the favorability of the children's perception of their teachers' feelings. These findings must be considered in light of the non-random selection of the sample. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to assume that these subjects are representatives of the population of New York City elementary school children at these grade levels. (Davidson and Lang, 1960).

According to Bledsoe and Garrison, "By the time the child has reached the fourth and sixth grade in school, the concept he has of himself has, to him, become the actual person." (Bledsoe and Garrison, 1963). It becomes essential to the child that he protect this "self" at any cost. Snygg and Combs point out that it is essential that the child protect himself when he feels that the self is threatened.

(Snygg and Combs, 1947). Auger points out that when the child perceives that he is accepted by others and is considered to be an individual worthy of respect, then he seeks to maintain this "self" and to behave in a way that will enhance this satisfying self-picture. If he perceives that he is rejected by others, he is likely to become hostile or withdrawn and will avoid contacts with those who project this negative image of himself. (Auger, 1966). Jersild states that there is a "universal need to maintain a degree of stability, a conviction of certainty regarding who and what one is. A person's craving for certainty is often stronger than his craving for truth." (Jersild, 1952). Jersild further describes the behavior of the child who feels thwarted by the negative self-concepts of others that he feels are being thrust upon him:

> He will feel hostile and probably will project his hostility onto others. He will need to protect himself against hostility. He will need to vindicate himself. His pride may become intensely involved. On another tack, he may go to great lengths in an effort to deny to himself that others actually reject him . . . one defense of such a person may be to try to overcome rejection through a campaign for winning acceptance. This may take the form of being compliant, good, conforming and amenable. (Jersild, 1952).

Lecky (1945) held that preserving one's perception of self-intact is the prime motive in all behavior. If the child feels that he is stupid, weak, or bad, he will respond only to situations which continue to place him in this role; if he feels that he is bright, strong, or good, he will act in harmony with these positive notions about himself. Auger (1966) noted that "this is not to suggest that the self-concept ceases to grow quantitatively; on the contrary, it continues to grow and will continue to grow through life." However, as Lecky points out, "one notes in its growth an ever-increasing rigidity of direction or style." (Lecky, 1945). According to Lecky, the child not seen as bright by his parents is really not free to explore, to be led by curiosity, and to learn new things when he goes to school. He is restrained by the picture he has of himself as a non-learner. Walsh considers that "he (the child) must be faithful to this picture of himself or be threatened with loss of selfhood." (Walsh, 1956).

As the child grows older, his self-concept matures and becomes more rigid or stylized. He assimilates learnings from his past experiences and is able to forecast his own future with a fair degree of accuracy based on his perceptions of the reactions of those around him. This is not to say that he accepts a future that is bleak and unsatisfactory just because he is able to predict. He is all the while developing a self-ideal concept, or a concept of the self that he would like to be. He usually develops this self-ideal concept in line with behavior which he has observed to elicit positive responses from others. Behavior will tend to follow that expected, according to the real self-concept, but the ideal self-concept is also present and maturing; and if allowed some ventilation, has possibilities of becoming a part of the real self-concept. Havighurst, Robinson, and Dorr (1946), to a stimulus entitled, "The Person I Would Like to Be," obtained responses from nine different age, grade, sex, and socio-economic groups. For the ideal self, students chose movie stars, parents, and composite imaginary characters. It was found that an age sequence exists in the development of ideal self-concepts and that social environment significantly influences the choice.

Earlier, it was stated that no one can completely know the self of another. Although it is known that the self-concept and the self-ideal concept are both developing as the result of learning and maturation, the intensely personal, private, and symbolic nature of the self-concept make systematic investigation difficult.

IV. DISCREPANCY BETWEEN SELF-CONCEPT AND THE IDEAL SELF-CONCEPT

In a study by Hawk (1958), it was found that boys and girls whose self-concepts were very closely related to the ideal self, or as they would like to be, were better adjusted and expressed a higher degree of self-confidence than did subjects whose discrepancy scores were high. Black and

Thomas (1955), in an experiment involving college students, found support for Rogers' contention that a large discrepancy between one's perceived self and ideal self goes along with maladjustment. However, they also found that individuals describing themselves as very close to their ideal self-concept tend to suppress threatening features of themselves. Taylor and Combs (1952) divided children into two better-adjusted and poorer-adjusted groups on the basis of scores on the California Test of Personality. Both groups were then asked to check on a list of twenty somewhat derogatory statements, those true of themselves. The better-adjusted group checked significantly more items than did the poorer-adjusted group. It was concluded that better-adjusted children were able to admit derogatory behavior more readily than were children in the poorer-adjusted group.

Using adults as subjects, Lepine and Chodorkoff (1955) found that the more an individual tended to express feelings of adequacy, the greater the correlation between his expressed concept of self and of self-ideal. Reese (1961) found among fourth, sixth, and eighth graders in New York City that girls generally reported higher self-esteem scores than boys; but, in general, all children who reportedly "liked themselves," also liked others and were socially better accepted.

McCandless, in summarizing recent studies of the discrepancy between the perceived self and the ideal self, states that:

> People who are highly critical, that is, who show a large discrepancy between the way they actually see themselves and the way they would ideally like to be, are less well adjusted than those who are at least moderately satisfied with themselves. (McCandless, 1961).

Levy found that, in general, students who expressed dissatisfaction with themselves, as inferred by a high discrepancy score between the real and the ideal self-concept, also expressed dissatisfaction with their hometowns. (Levy, 1956). Russell (1953) summarized several early or unpublished studies of children dealing with self-evaluation. It was found that children tend to overestimate their standing on a variety of achievement and personality tests. The Coopersmith Studies (1957), however, indicate a high correlation between children's self-evaluation and evaluations made by peers and teachers.

Studies of Amatora (1958), Green (1958), Wylie (1959), and Webb (1959) furnish evidence that the accuracy of the self-evaluation is a function of the variables which are being evaluated. Wylie (1961) presents a good summary of descriptive facts about the subjects' insight based upon self-evaluation:

> The typical, but not unanimous, finding is that Ss' self-rating show low but significant correlations with the ratings which Ss receive from others. This seems to hold true for a wide variety of traits and persons. Probably the correlations for some traits are higher than for other traits, but definitive, clearly interpretable statements can be made about the degree of correspondence between self-ratings and those ratings

> received from others. Further research is necessary in which certain methodological difficulties are eliminated. (Wylie, 1961).

There is considerable evidence that overestimation will be more common than underestimation in projecting one's ideal self-concept; therefore, it is evident that if a child overestimates his degree of ideal self-acceptance, there will be a high discrepancy score between the real and the ideal self-concept. Therefore, the discrepancy score is an even stronger predictor of ambiguities and maladjustments. However weak the instruments may be, and regardless of the conflicts of opinion regarding overestimation percentages, Wylie (1961) insists that more positive and consistent results are obtained from the self-evaluation than on instruments based on observed behavior or teacher or peer perceptions, and actual-ideal discrepancy scores have been found to be the best available indices of general adjustment.

V. SELF-ACCEPTANCE AND ACCEPTANCE OF OTHERS

"To feel acceptable, one must experience acceptance." (Combs, 1962). Perhaps, the key to the distinction between a maladjusted individual and a secure, well-adjusted individual lies in the extent to which a socially acceptable image has been developed. Combs further states that, "actually, the best guarantee we have that a person will be able to deal with the future effectively is that he has been essentially successful in the past." (Combs, 1962).

Reckless analyzed and compared well-adjusted or "insulated" children who were considered to be potential delinquents. Significant self-images were revealed, and it was concluded that concept of self in relationship to others was found to be a component that might explain acceptable and unacceptable behavior. (Reckless, 1957).

Prompted by a study by McIntyre (1952) in which he attempted to confirm the Rogerian Hypothesis that individuals with high self-acceptance ought to enjoy greater acceptance by others, Fey (1955) administered to 58 medical students scales to measure expressed attitudes of self-acceptance and a sociometric device measuring acceptance by others. Analysis of the data indicated that individuals with high self-acceptance scores tend also to accept others, and students with low self-acceptance scores tend not to be accepted by others. However, it was found that those who tended to think more highly of themselves than of others were not accepted by the others even though they indicated that such was the case.

Studies by Berger (1957), Marshall (1959), Omwake (1959), Phillips (1960), Reeder (1960), and others support the hypothesis that acceptance of self is positively related to acceptance of others. Stock (1949) found that as an individual's feelings change to positive attitudes, feelings toward others change in a similar direction. Fromm stated that:

> We should love ourselves, for self-love and the love of others go hand-in-hand. . . . Failure to love the self is accompanied by a basic hostility toward others which arises out of the suppression of the individual's spontaneity or of his "real self." (Fromm, 1939).

It has been found that while persons who report a high degree of self-acceptance also are high-accepting of others, these same persons may not be as acceptable by their associates as the data would indicate. Auger suggests that "low self-accepting subjects might be popular because they represent no threat to their friends." (Auger, 1966). On a six-point scale measuring such factors as friendliness, likeability, generosity, intelligence, etc., Wylie found positive correlations between self-ratings and ratings assigned to others. Bruce (1958) inferred that high self-acceptance served to free individuals from excessive pre-occupations with intrapersonal problems, thus allowing them to cope with the fulfillment of secondary needs such as gaining status and security with others.

Suinn (1961) and Mueller (1963), respectively, found that subjects tend to accept others who they perceive to be much like themselves, and that self-insight is a factor in the accurate perception of others.

V. THE SELF-CONCEPT AND MENTAL HEALTH

The degree of acceptance of self has been concluded to be one indicator of the degree of mental health that the subject possesses. Positive mental health may be defined as "the ability to adjust satisfactorily to the various strains we meet in life" (Cutts, 1941), or "the adjustment of the individual to himself and the world at large with a maximum of effectiveness, satisfaction, cheerfulness and socially considerate behavior and the ability to face and accept the realities of life." (White House Conference on Children and Youth, 1960). Good mental health allows the individual to realize the greatest success which his capabilities will permit, with the maximum of satisfaction to himself and society and with a minimum of friction. Boehm has defined mental health as "a condition and level of socially acceptable and personally satisfying functioning." (Boehm, 1958).

Mental health is not some simple aspect of life; it is intimately related to the whole of one's existence. Good mental health is certainly more than the absence of emotional disturbance or social maladjustment. Mentally healthy individuals are characterized by "a vital, positive emotional approach to living, both in day-to-day experiences and in long-range terms." (T. Ryan, ASCD, 1950). Bledsoe and Garrison (1961) noted that "the self-concept constitutes the core of personality organization . . . and personal adjustment problems occur as the result of threat to the integrity of one's self-concept." The manner in which he is received by others, his own perception of others as acceptable individuals, and his own discrepancy in his real self-concept and ideal self-concept may strongly influence his degree of positive mental health. Atchinson suggests that the mentally healthy person should exhibit the following behavior:

1. Perceive himself in a positive fashion
2. Demonstrate a reasonably clear, certain and well differentiated concept of self
3. Be frank and honest in admitting his negative characteristics
4. Demonstrate an acceptable degree of consistency between and within the various divisions of the self-concept. (Atchinson, undated).

Jahoda suggests that healthy individuals will be able to accept themselves but that the youth who is not sure of his identity, shies away from interpersonal intimacy. (Jahoda, 1958). Subjects with a low self-ideal score will tend to be anxious, irritable, unhappy, and inadequate; but, subjects who evaluate themselves favorably have fairly stable ideas about the positive evaluations of others. They tend to feel secure, friendly, happy, and adequate. McCandless, in a study involving correlation of self-concept with adjustment, reports the following findings:

> In studies where the self-concept was compared with ratings of the individual made by others, those who were more "accurate" in their self-perceptions received scores on personality tests indicating good adjustment, and less often manifested delinquent tendencies. . . . Children who are inaccurate in their self-concepts, in which they regard themselves poorly but are rated by their teachers as successful, are quite popular and academically successful, yet very critical. (McCandless, 1961).

The higher the correlation between the actual concept of self and the self-ideal concept, the more nearly the individual approaches a position of positive mental health and subsequent happiness.

> Happiness is a state of mind, a state of being, an inner glow, an inner warmth. Happiness makes life worth living, and each day worth the effort and each night a welcome time of rest. Happiness is being able to say to one's self: "I like what I am, who I am and what I am doing and where I am. I like me and the world about me." (Leach, 1959).

VII. SELF-CONCEPT AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Substantial evidence indicates a relationship between self-concept and school achievement. In a study involving Negro students, Deutsche found that low achievement was highly related to negative self-concepts. (Deutsche, 1965). In studying the relationship of self-concept to achievement in reading in fifth-grade children, Lumpkin found a variety of significant relationships between the pupils' self-concepts and achievement in reading. Those students who were achieving significantly above grade level saw themselves as liking reading and revealed significantly more positive self-concepts than those achieving at a lower level. (Lumpkin, 1959). Bledsoe and Garrison (1963) obtained low and non-significant correlations between self-concept and achievements; but a comparison study made by Henton and Johnson (1964), reported significant positive relationships between self-concept and achievements in all instances for sixth-grade boys and girls and in five of the seven correlations for boys alone. Positive correlations were found for fourth-grade students but were insignificant.

Bodwin studied the relationship between immature self-concepts and learning disabilities of children in grades one through three. He found that a positive relationship existed between immature self-concept and reading disability. Positive correlations were as high as .78 at the third-grade level. Bodwin also noted that the ideal self-concept score is similar for both low and high achievers, but on the real self-concept instrument, the high achievers tend to check items descriptive of the general population more frequently than did students in the low achieving group. (Bodwin, 1959).

VIII. SELF-CONCEPT AND ANXIETIES

Studies show that self-concepts are related to anxieties. McCandless (1956) found that "children with more anxiety tended to show the poorest performance in the more complicated skills." Stevenson (1965) concluded that "anxiety has the most disruptive effect on performance in tasks involving verbal processes." Katahn (1966) found that anxiety may facilitate performance when combined with high scholastic aptitude, but not when combined with low scholastic aptitude. Coopersmith (1959) used the children's form of the manifest anxiety scale and noted that children with high self-esteem were significantly less anxious than those with low self-esteem.

IX. MEASUREMENT OF SELF-CONCEPT

All measurements of self-concept include the idea of desirability and undesirability, but measurements of self-concept vary according to the dimension of how values are attached. The good-bad dimension of the self-concept is related to manifest anxiety, to general adjustment and to effectiveness in a group. The self-concept rating is also related to age, sex, family position, and the educational and socio-economic environments. (McCandless, 1961).

The Q-Sort Procedure has been used by researchers to measure self-concept. The subject is given a large number of adjectives written on cards. He is required to arrange these according to a pre-planned procedure into stacks in varying degress of "least like me" and "most like me." The Thematic Apperception Test, The Rorschach Inkblot Test, The Michigan Picture Test, and others have been used to measure personal adjustment.

For this study, the Self-Concept Scale was used which is an adaptation of an Index of Adjustment and Values designed by Bills, Vance, and McLean (1951) to measure the discrepancy between the self-concept and the ideal self. The Index at that time consisted of 49 traits which appear to measure the value of a person. Lipsitt (1958) adapted the instrument for use with children using 22 adjectives and a five-point rating scale. Bledsoe and Garrison (1963) used 19 of the adjectives from this list and added 11 others which would appear to be more conducive to eliciting sincere answers from children. This instrument was administered to more than 600 fourth- and sixth-grade boys and girls and was used with another fairly large population of children from the same grades by Henton and Johnson (1964).

The personal-social orientation score obtained from the Child's Self-Description Scale and The Index of Adjustment and Values adapted by Lipsitt (1961) are instruments which are designed to measure self-concept. The Child's Scale of Manifest Anxiety, adapted by Castenado, McCandless, and Palermo (1956), is designed to measure anxiety as a factor influencing self-concept. Many other instruments have been developed for the purpose of measuring self-concept, but, in reading the literature, those instruments mentioned above were considered to be most relevant to this study.

X. SUMMARY

In the review of literature related to self-concept, an attempt was made to survey research related to the development of self-concept, the discrepancy between the real and ideal concepts of self, and the relationship between self-acceptance, acceptance of others, and positive mental health. Particular attention was given to literature pertaining to studies involving the relationship between self-concept and other variables among children.

The literature reviewed in this chapter suggested that self-concept can be measured; self-concept is developed from the individual's own phenomenological field which consists of the "persisting ways he sees himself" (Perkins, 1957); and achievement and general adjustment are related to self-concept. Further, the literature reviewed suggested that the need exists for research centered around the development and measurement of self-concepts among children. (Wylie, 1961).

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO MIGRATION AND SELF-CONCEPT, NEW MEXICO PROGRAMS

I. INTRODUCTION

The pages of history are filled with the record of man's movement away from a lesser toward a greater opportunity. According to Ryan, this is the man's movement "in search for security and happiness in some more favorable environment. The growing pressures of circumstances in the old setting, coupled with the lure of distant 'green pastures' has served to keep humanity free." (Ryan, 1940). "The history of the American people is one of constant and restless movement, and a large part of each generation has moved away from the communities they knew as children." (McLachlan, 1956). Beginning with the long trek westward to explore and fill an empty continent, and followed by the urban surge from the Civil War Era to the present time, there has been a constant flow of interstate, intrastate, and interregional migration in America.

II. MOBILITY IN THE NATION AND PUBLIC RECOGNITION OF NEEDS

Sociologists, psychologists, and educators have long recognized the plight of those who are constantly on the move, and a series of studies of migrant conditions were conducted as early as the 1920's by the U.S. Children's Bureau and the National Child Labor Committee. During this period, many people who had formerly lived on farms moved to the cities and found employment in industries. With the business depression of the early 1930's, many of these industries were closed and thousands of these people joined the stream of untold numbers of destitute families from the "dust bowl" that swelled the ranks of migratory workers. At this time, the public began to recognize the plight of the migrant workers and their children.

In 1936, the Senate Committee on Education and Labor directed the Department of Labor to study the social and economic needs of migratory workers. The Department submitted its report in 1937. The La Follette Committee, a subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, was appointed to make an investigation that same year. In 1940, the House set up the Tolan Committee to inquire into interstate migration of workers, and in 1941, the La Follette Committee recommended five bills and the Tolan Committee three bills that would improve conditions for migrants. An

Interdepartmental Committee had also been appointed to coordinate health and welfare activities; and, after a four-year study, this committee made similar recommendations for action.

The years between 1937 and 1943 saw the development of 46 permanent and 49 mobile camps for seasonal farm workers under the auspices of the Farm Security Administration. With the outbreak of the war, many of these families were moved to areas where employment was needed; and by 1943, the Farm Labor Program was directed by the War Food Administration and State Extension Services.

During World War II, the demand for seasonal farm workers rapidly increased, and the group of migrants was composed primarily of Mexicans from Texas and Negroes from other southern states. Few native whites followed the migrant stream. The need for more seasonal farm laborers gave rise to the importation of Mexicans and other foreign nationals and to the "wet-back" problem which followed. The foreign nationals were assured decent housing, minimum wages, and a guaranteed amount of employment; whereas, no such legislation was provided for the domestic migrant who, consequently, worked at the less desirable jobs and with less continuity of employment.

In 1947, the Emergency Farm Labor Program was liquidated, and the employment of seasonal farm workers was transferred back to the Federal Employment Services who, in cooperation with the State Employment Services, set up information stations at strategic points along the migratory routes and also began a campaign for better housing for migrants. They appealed to the growers to provide better living conditions as incentives for attracting reliable workers.

The Secretary of Labor continued certification of need of Mexican nationals for seasonal agricultural work, and the domestic migrant lived and worked in the poorest of circumstances until public attention turned to the persistent problems in agricultural employment and to the life styles of this low-income group. The 1946 report of a Federal Inter-Agency Committee on Migrant Labor, entitled _Migrant Labor: A Human Problem_, created a stronger interest in the problem, and some attempts at both State and Federal legislation resulted.

The most outstanding legislative action of this period was enacted in 1950 under provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act which prohibited the employment of children during school hours. Later in 1950, the President's Commission on Migratory Labor was created by Executive order and held meetings across the land for the purpose of obtaining information from the grower, the hiring agencies, and from the migrants themselves. This Commission's report in 1951 included a comprehensive outline of problems and recommendations for improving conditions. Many programs, during recent years, were developed according to guidelines set by the recommendations of this committee. (Heathershaw, 1958).

The Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth was also aware of the problems of the migrant farm worker and his children; and, in 1952, this committee held a two-day seminar and exchanged information and discussed the development of joint projects. New Jersey, Texas, and California were among the first states to develop programs which are still in operation, but few other programs were enacted as a result of the 1952 seminar. However, there was widespread interest in the problem, and many organizations made recommendations and urged program activities for migrants. Among the national organizations so involved were: The National Council of Churches, which developed the Migrant Ministry Division; the National Council of Catholic Charities; the United Council of Church Women; the National Child and Labor Committee; the National Consumer's League; the National Sharecroppers Fund; and the National Education Association.

In 1952, Senator Humphrey conducted hearings before the Senate Committee on Labor and Labor Management Relations regarding four draft bills proposed by the President's Commission on Migratory Labor. One result of this meeting was not evidenced until two years later when President

Eisenhower followed the committee recommendations and appointed the President's Committee on Migratory Labor made up of the Secretaries of Interior, Agriculture, Labor, Health, Education and Welfare, and the Administrator of the Housing and the Home Finance Agency. The working group to which the recommendations were assigned developed the following guides for program emphasis:

1. That the President's Committee direct its efforts not only to the amelioration of conditions of migratory workers, but also to the reduction of need for such workers to migrate;
2. That the Committee seek to integrate its programs and activities with local programs for both farm and non-farm people so as to allow a coordinated and continuous approach to migrant workers' problems while they are at their home base as well as when they follow the crops;
3. That the Committee, through its participating agencies, undertake a detailed locality study in selected areas, of present and anticipated housing needs of domestic migratory workers and their families and the prospects and conditions for meeting these needs within a reasonable period of time;
4. That the Committee support and encourage the formation of migratory labor committees by the states as one important means of developing state and local programs for migrants;
5. That the desirability be explored of pilot programs for migrant farm workers, similar to and where appropriate, closely integrated with those suggested for low-income farm families in the report "Development of Agriculture's Human Resources";

6. That the President's Committee favor a study of migrant workers' income and employment opportunities as they relate to the economic and social problems of migration;

7. That the Committee endorse increasing the efforts now being made to more fully utilize local labor resources as a means of reducing the need for migratory workers;

8. That the Committee favor increasing emphasis on the development of planned seasonal work schedules for migrant workers needed in various areas in order to assure more continuity of employment and increase the annual income of these workers;

9. That the President's Committee provide, where necessary, support and assistance to the appropriate official agencies for encouraging the states either to modify residence restrictions or to devise other means of providing needed services to non-residents so that agricultural migrant workers would have the same rights and privileges as those of the other residents in the communities in which they work;

10. That additional efforts be made to aid farm employers in improving labor-management practices and employer-employee relations;

11. That the President's Committee on Migratory Labor place special emphasis upon the need for providing opportunities for the education of migrant children, and vocational and fundamental education of youths and adults;

12. That the Working Group and its member agencies give greater emphasis to exploring means by which the recommendations and objectives of the President's Committee on Migratory Labor can be presented through cooperation with national and other voluntary organizations. (Heathershaw, 1958).

In 1956, minimum housing laws were enacted and committees on migratory labor set up in nineteen states.

Minimum standards for transportation of agricultural workers by motor vehicle were developed by Federal Committee and the Interstate Commerce Commission, and a simply-worded digest of the regulations were printed in English and in Spanish and distributed to migrant crew leaders and workers.

The foregoing report of legislation and recommendations are, indeed, impressive, and if the story stopped there, one might well believe that the plight of the migrant is over, or at least that the problems had been alleviated to a great extent. However, by themselves, these recommendations and frail pieces of legislation could accomplish little. Individual states had to adopt, adapt, or in some way emulate these recommendations, or their equivalents, before any appreciable improvement in migrant problems resulted. Many attempts were made to solve some of the persisting problems, but often the relief of one problem brought other problems to be solved. Such is the case with the enactment of transportation regulations, requiring that trucks transporting migrant workers stop eight hours for every 600 miles traveled. The migrant workers often do not have money for food or for a bed along the way; therefore, there grew up a demand for rest camps along the most-traveled migrant roads, and the crew leader was required to advance money to the workers or to feed them enroute to jobs. Few migrant crew leaders are financially able to comply. When children are hired to work in the fields, it is in direct violation of the Child Labor Law. However, often these same children stay at the camp or housing unit and care for smaller brothers and sisters, and free the mother to go into the fields. Therefore, migrant children often do not attend school for any full year.

In the enactment of legislation involving minimum housing regulations, many growers have found it much less expensive to build accommodations for single workers or for men only. Often the family members are separated for long periods of time and many broken homes have resulted. In insisting that community services be provided for migrants equal to those provided for indigent residents, the presence of migrant workers is not welcome. Many communities have refused living quarters to the migrants simply because the community cannot afford the expense of caring for these people when they are out of work.

In 1962, the Migrant Health Bill was passed which gave some relief in the area of health services of an emergency nature and immunizations to migrants. With the beginning of the War on Poverty in 1963, special educational programs for migrants were launched. In 1964, provisions for migrant housing were enacted along with projects for health clinics and day care centers for children. In 1965, the Head Start Programs began and specifically included the migrant child, but few attended these classes. The Migrant Housing Bill authorized ten-million dollars annually to be spent for adequate housing facilities, but only three-million dollars were appropriated by Congress. In 1965, Congress also authorized in-patient hospital care, but failed to appropriate funds for this bill.

If the compulsory school attendance laws had been enforced, the number of pupils in attendance in rural schools in some areas would have been doubled. Many schools serving rural areas were crowded already and were in no way prepared for additional enrollments for short periods of time. The problem of educating migrant children was one which sorely plagued the individual states that receive streams of migrants until some relief arrived in the form of federal funds provided by Public Law 89-10 and Public Law 89-750. These laws provided authorization for funds to support educational programs to supplement the regular programs and for health, nutritional, and other needs of migrants to be supplied, and funds were appropriated for implementation of these laws.

One of the objectives of the President's Committee of 1954 was to "reduce the need for such workers to migrate." Was this objective ever achieved? Are there fewer migrants now than in 1954? Let us take a look at some candid descriptions of the migrant and some statistics that may in part answer these questions.

III. WHO ARE THE MIGRANTS? HOW MANY ARE THERE, AND WHERE DO THEY GO?

According to the 1960 population survey, 33,640,000 people in the United States moved during the year. This is more than one-fifth of the population of our nation, and approximately eight million of this number were children between the ages of five and seventeen. (U. S. Bureau of Census, 1962). This mobile population comes from all segments of our society, including diplomats, government employees, military personnel, construction workers, engineers, circus performers, tourists, and migratory farm workers. The last group comprises those people who are most often in need, whose children do not often attend school regularly, and who move most often.

In the Southwest, the largest per cent of these migrant farm workers are Mexican-Americans or other Spanish-speaking people. Saunders points out that:

> The Spanish American workers in industrial agriculture are largely landless people, newcomers or second generation, marginal people with little status, few possessions, and a fair amount of personal and social disorganization. (Shotwell, 1961).

Spoerl suggests that, "the child's foreign language background may be perceived by himself and his associates as a symbol of minority group status and may, therefore, augment any emotional maladjustment arising from such status." (Spoerl, 1943).

Another writer has described the plight of the migrant in other realistic terms:

> Migrant laborers--among the nation's lowest paid workers--have been exempt from minimum wage laws, and from the organizing and bargaining protection of the nation's labor unions . . . they are not assured of unemployment compensation in forty-nine of the fifty states, and although they are employed in the third most hazardous industry, they are covered by full injury compensation laws in only six states. (Stern, 1967).

According to the Stern study, the average wages per year for a migrant is less than seven-hundred dollars. With four in the family working, the total income is considered to be still at the "poverty" level. Others have suggested figures as high as fifteen-hundred dollars average annual income for migrant workers, but no estimate implies that earnings are enough for even the barest essentials for these children of the soil. McWilliams (1967) reports, according to the Larsen study (1932), that of the Mexican migrants whose status in the United States had become permanent, 42 per cent of the males and 55 per cent of the females who were sixteen years of age or older could not use the English language; one fourth of the children between the ages of six and fifteen had no school record of attendance for two years. According to Shotwell, "The migrant worker's year is a string of beads--a week of employment here, another there, uncertainly tied together with travel in search of work." (Shotwell, 1961).

Shotwell further describes the migrant population as follows:

> The migrant is a minority within a minority. The components of the general migrant population belong to racial or ethnic minorities. In addition, each in turn within his own ethnic group occupies a place at the very bottom of the social and economic hierarchy. He meets the most discrimination, does the hardest work, earns the least money; he has the least formal schooling, the lowest status. His migrancy separates him from the larger community; his minority status aggravates the separation . . . migrancy engenders community resentment, puts in peril such practical aspects of normal family living as regular schooling for children, housing that is sanitary and convenient and conducive to wholesome family relationships, voting privileges, stable income, health and welfare services available to residents. Migrancy reduces to zero the chance to develop the feeling of belonging to a stable community. (Shotwell, 1961).

In 1967, the National Committee on Education of Migrant children included the following statements in its report:

> Who is the migrant child? He is America's most forgotten, most disinherited child. He is found in almost all of the 47 states where agricultural migrants work. He travels with his parents sometimes a thousand miles at a time. He works in the fields with his family--he's a good bean picker at six--but seldom does he venture into the community which is his temporary home. . . . Accidents, infection, and contagious diseases take a tragic toll among these children of misfortune, while the day-to-day erosion of health, made by inadequate diet and unsanitary living conditions, frequently produces permanent impairment in physical development and vitality. . . . Because of his mobility, the migrant child is usually retarded in grade achievement from two to three years. He is frequently further handicapped by being culturally disoriented in the teaching materials in common use. Since he has seldom experienced a sense of achievement, he suffers from insecurity and anonymity. (N.C.E.M.C., 1967).

Allen points out that some seasonal farm workers manage to eke out a living by combining farm work, odd jobs, and county relief. "But it is a marginal existence, devoid of dignity and hope for a share in America's future." (Allen, 1966).

IV. THE EFFECT OF MOBILITY ON SELF-CONCEPT AND EDUCATION

How does this untenable situation affect the migrant child's self-concept and his education? According to Jersild, "A chronic condition of anxiety develops when a child has to build a defense against an environment that is unreliable, unjust, and harsh, an environment he does not have the power to change, which undermines his ability to place trust in himself." (Jersild, 1963). Such an environment, as a whole, is a menace to the individual and interferes with his opportunity to develop his potentialities as a person. Such is the environment of the migrant child--harsh, unreliable, and unpredictable. The migrant child knows that "being on the season gets you no place. On the season you are nobody." (George Hill, fifteen-year-old migrant worker).

The NEA Research Bulletin notes that "No adequate assessment can be made of the educational gain or loss that results in shifts in residence by these millions of school children" (Dec. 1958). According to Sutton, (NEA, Oct. 1961), among the factors contributing to feelings of frustration and inadequacy in the classroom are: irregular schooling, periodic uprooting and readjustments, and lack of cultural background. In reporting on a study of mobility among students in the Missouri schools, Carpenter summarized hazards brought on by high pupil mobility:

1. Disruption of daily classroom procedure;
2. Lag in receipt of pupil information;
3. High teacher turn over;
4. Maladjustment of schools in trying to cope with mobility; and
5. Physical adjustment. (NEA, Oct. 1961).

Hefferman states: "Although exact figures are not available, most of the migrant children are retarded at least a year in school achievement," and further noted that:

> Most of the migrant children have to spend at least one extra year in the elementary grades, not because of loss of time but due to transfers. Lack of morale and enthusiasm for school becomes a problem in the upper grades, as pupils drop further and further behind their classmates. (Hefferman, 1962).

One study concluded that the educational experience of migrant children included academic retardation and frustration. "Migrant children entered school late, were slow and uncertain, had language difficulties and . . . were held back in the first grade." (Kansas Migrant Conference, 1962).

According to Stern (1967), the migrant child under fourteen years old has three to one odds against him that he is behind his age group in school; at age fourteen, the odds are six to one; and at age fifteen, the odds are nine to one.

There are usually no books, magazines, or newspapers at home, and "learning is likely to be little more than an embarrassing struggle to overcome the child's own firm conviction that he can't do as well as the other kids." (Stern, 1967). Again, let us note that since he (the migrant child) has seldom experienced success, he suffers from insecurity and anonymity. He knows that he is a nobody and doomed to failure. Perhaps he has heard his father say, "No use to send that youngun' to school. He's gonna grow up dumb just like me." (Hill, 1941).

It is a difficult task for children reared in culturally deprived circumstances to acquire feelings of self-reliance and optimism toward themselves and their future. The Levine study of self-awareness noted that "Children who were socially and economically underprivileged and poor students differed from good students in their self-concepts and in their view of the future." (Levine and Wardell, 1962).

The migrant child rarely has positive attitudes toward himself or society. He views his chaotic world as a hostile, unreliable environment. Is it so strange that he rarely accepts and is accepted, that he rejects school and peers, and seldom achieves more than an eighth-grade education? It has been suggested that "The individual with a healthy personality is one who actively masters his environment, shows a unity of personality, and is able to perceive the world and himself accurately." (Committee Report, White House Conference on Children and Youth, 1951). If these are the criteria for development of a healthy personality, the migrant child is not likely to attain this level of perception, for his world is unstable and he is "always goin' some place but never gittin' nowhere." (Moore, 1965).

V. MIGRATION IN NEW MEXICO: PROBLEMS AND PROGRAMS

Migration

In the Ulibarri study of 1965, it was found that almost without exception the migrant workers of New Mexico wanted their children to "get an education," and they seemed to be ardent supporters of education, but there was little evidence of overt action which would help the children to become educated. There seemed to be little understanding of the educational function or the responsibility of the child or family for academic achievement. The often-repeated reason for desires for education for their children was "so that they will not have to work as hard as I have." (Ulibarri, 1965). Of the forty-eight migrant and ex-migrant families interviewed, only two reported any high school graduates among their children. However, the children tend to drop out of school three or four grades above that completed by the parents, and the parents seemed pleased with these accomplishments. Often the children were enrolled late in the fall and taken out of school early in the spring to "help support the family."

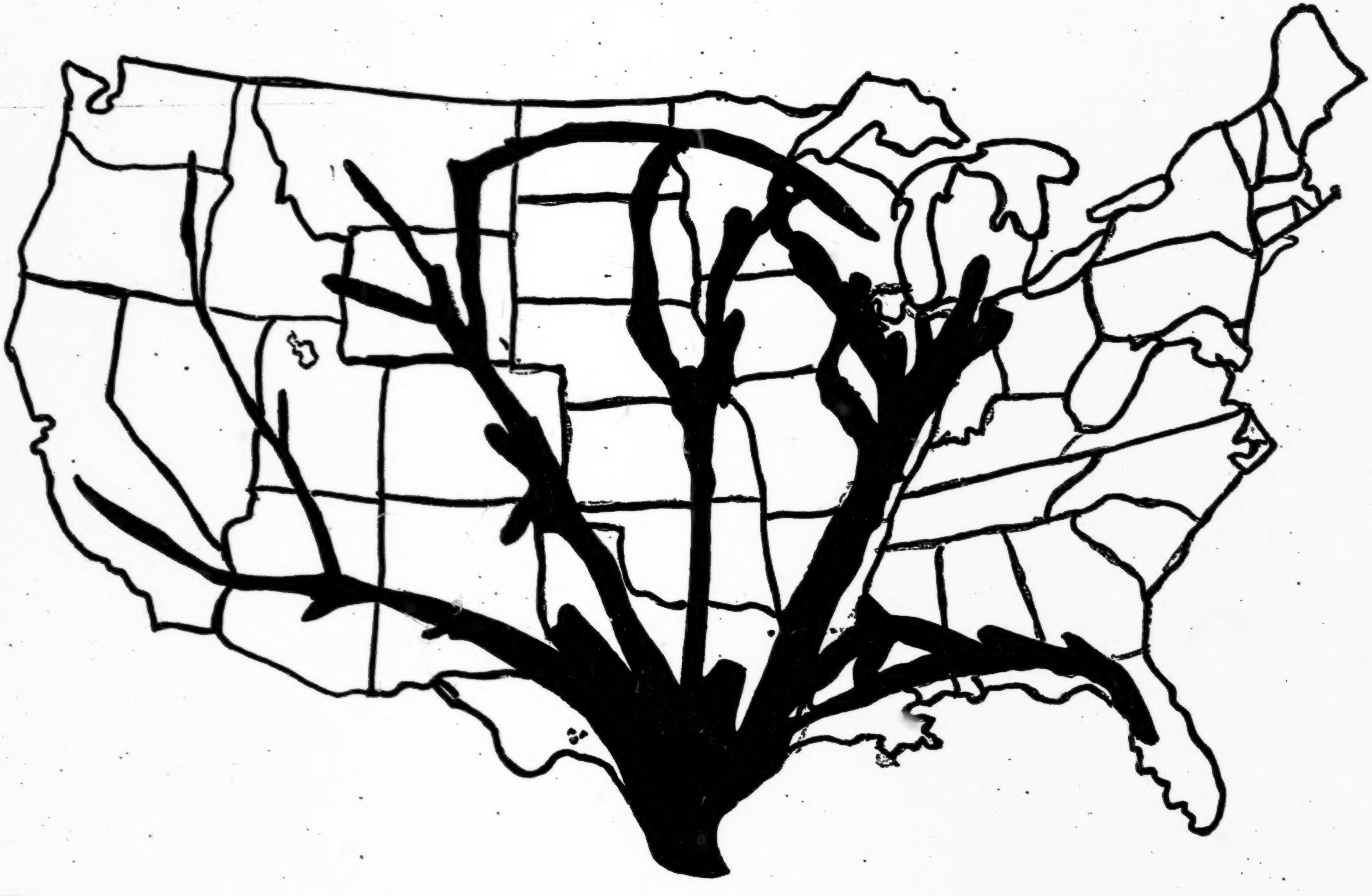
The migrant in this state, then, is no different from others in the faster-flowing migrant stream. They are poorly educated, poorly paid, live in inadequate housing facilities, have limited educations, and adopt actions that will provide very little more for their descendants. Of the thousands of Mexican-American migrants attempting to survive in American society, Marden uses the term "vicious circle." According to Marden, these people arriving from Mexico are inferior in language and skills to the American citizen; they are ridiculed by their American counterpart, and discriminated against in job assignments. "The Mexican immigrant, seeing himself in these conditions, then would become self-conscious of his inferiority, and the more conscious he becomes of his inferiority, the more inferior he becomes." (Marden, 1952).

Some ten-thousand children either live in New Mexico and leave their homes each year, following agricultural work with their parents, or spend some time in this state working in the crops during the peak of the harvest season and then move on to greener pastures. These children fall into the categories of both home-based and out-going migrants. Tables 3-1 through 3-5 indicate areas of heaviest concentration of migrants and directions of mobility.

The interested public has long been aware of the problems of basic needs and education for these "nomad harvesters"; and the New Mexico Commission on Children and Youth was host to participants from nine states in this area in 1953 to discuss the problems of Migrant Labor. Representatives from Mexico and from federal agencies in Washington, D.C. attended, and attempts were made to set goals and objectives for action that might begin to provide some relief from dire situations and to offer some hope for a brighter future to these individuals caught up in the migrant stream.

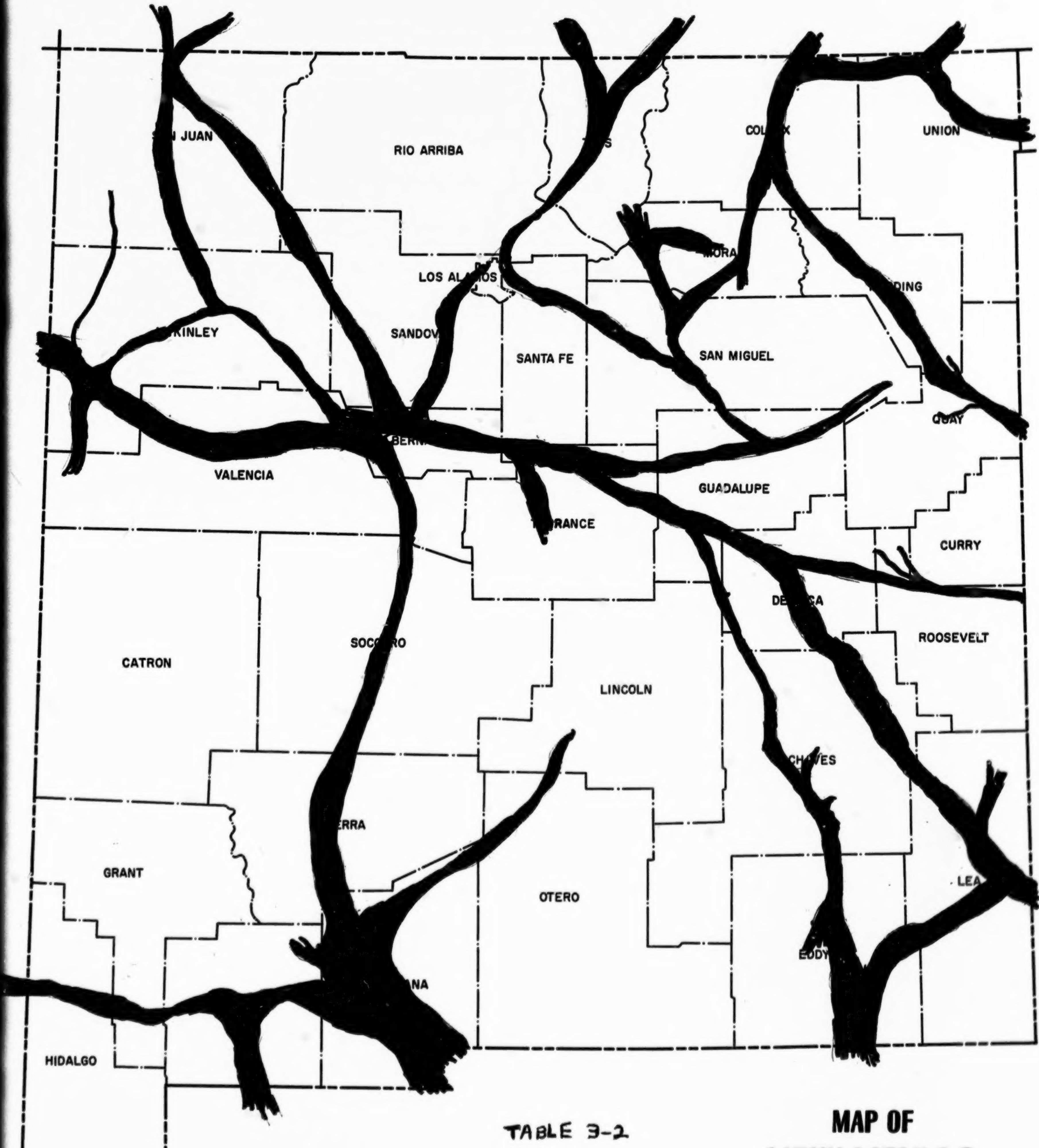
Due to lack of funds with which to implement the ideas of some of these interested persons, no major attempt at attacking the problem resulted from public interest until the passage of Public Law 89-10 amended by P. L. 89-750 in 1965. For New Mexico, the funding of the first Title I Migrant Proposal for $128,035 set programs in operation in 1966 in forty-six school districts. Remedial reading and mathematics instruction was provided for 719 children. Other vital non-academic services, such as hot lunches, health services, clothing, and counseling, were provided for 2,549 children in the 1966 program. Table 3-6 presents data on migratory children by geographical areas in the state of New Mexico, home states for these children, estimated time of arrival, departure, and destination.

TABLE 3-1



Travel Patterns of Texas Migrants

(Texas Education Agency, 1968)


N JUAN
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KINLEY
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QUAY
BERN
VALENCIA
GUADALUPE
RANCE
CURRY
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ROOSEVELT
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LINCOLN
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ERRA
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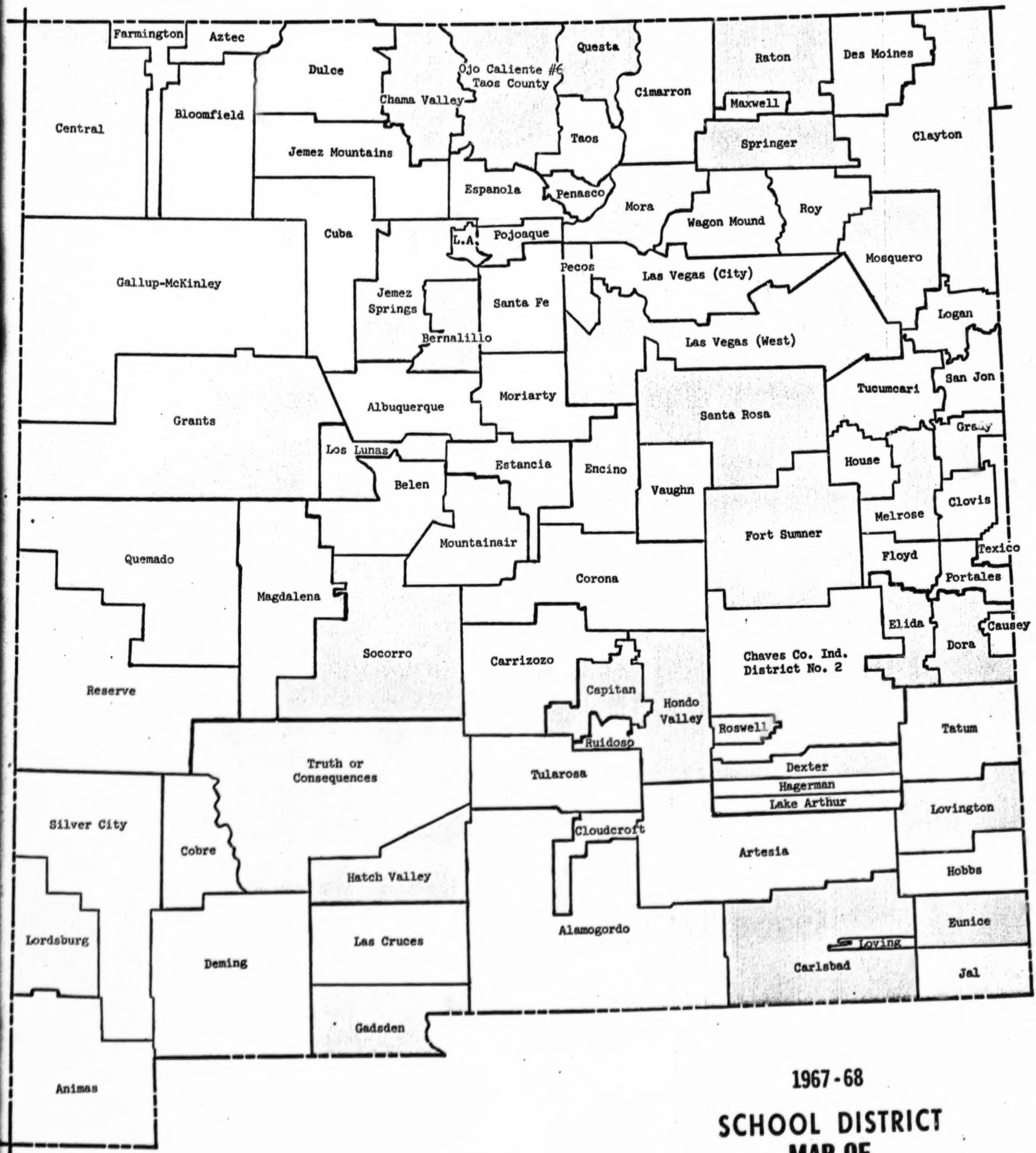
TABLE 3-2

MAP OF
NEW MEXICO

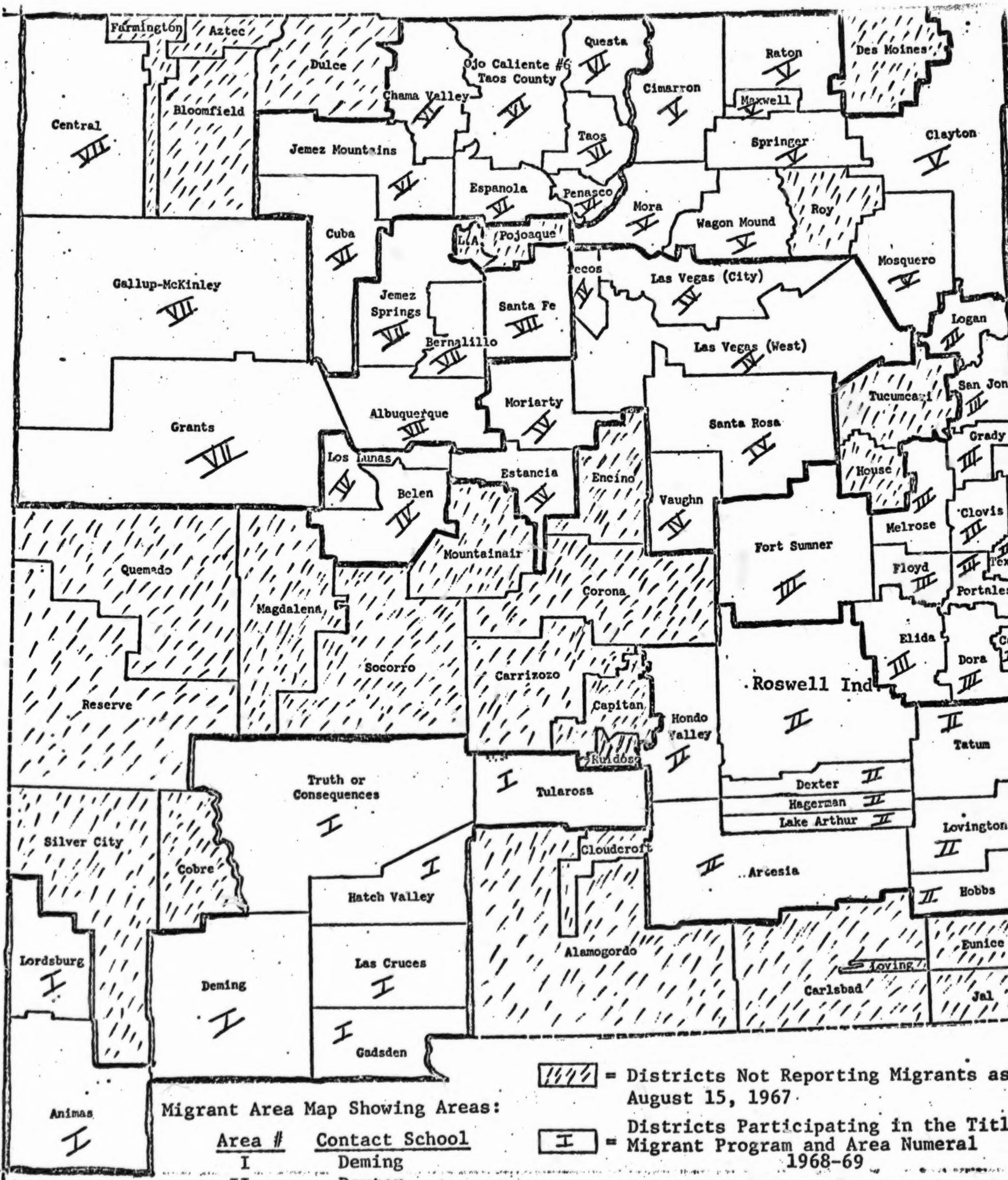
Travel Patterns of
New Mexico Migrants

TABLE 3-3


Farmington
Aztec
Dulce
Ojo Caliente #6
Taos County
Questa
Raton
Des Moines
Central
Bloomfield
Chama Valley
Cimarron
Maxwell
Taos
Springer
Clayton
Jemez Mountains
Espanola
Penasco
Mora
Wagon Mound
Roy
Cuba
L.A.
Pojoaque
Mosquero
Gallup-McKinley
Pecos
Las Vegas (City)
Jemez
Springs
Santa Fe
Logan
Bernalillo
Las Vegas (West)
San Jon
Tucumcari
Grants
Albuquerque
Moriarty
Santa Rosa
Grady
Los Lunas
House
Estancia
Encino
Belen
Vaughn
Clovis
Melrose
Fort Sumner
Texico
Mountainair
Floyd
Quemado
Corona
Portales
Magdalena
Elida
Causey
Dora
Socorro
Carrizozo
Chaves Co. Ind.
District No. 2
Reserve
Capitan
Hondo
Valley
Tatum
Roswell
Ruidoso
Truth or
Consequences
Tularosa
Dexter
Hagerman
Lake Arthur
Lovington
Silver City
Cloudcroft
Cobre
Artesia
Hobbs
Hatch Valley
Lordsburg
Eunice
Alamogordo
Las Cruces
Loving
Deming
Carlsbad
Jal
Gadsden
Animas

1967 - 68

SCHOOL DISTRICT MAP OF NEW MEXICO


Farmington
Aztec
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Chama Valley
Ojo Caliente #6 Taos County
Questa
Raton
Des Moines
Maxwell
Cimarron
Central
Bloomfield
Jemez Mountains
Taos
Springer
Clayton
Espanola
Penasco
Mora
Wagon Mound
Roy
Cuba
L.A.
Pojoaque
Pecos
Las Vegas (City)
Mosquero
Gallup-McKinley
Jemez Springs
Santa Fe
Bernalillo
Logan
Las Vegas (West)
San Jon
Grants
Albuquerque
Moriarty
Tucumcari
Santa Rosa
Grady
Los Lunas
Estancia
Encino
House
Belen
Vaughn
Clovis
Melrose
Fort Sumner
Mountainair
Quemado
Floyd
Tex
Corona
Portales
Magdalena
Elida
Socorro
Carrizozo
Dora
Roswell Ind.
Reserve
Capitan
Hondo Valley
Tatum
Ruidoso
Truth or Consequences
Tularosa
Dexter
Hagerman
Lake Arthur
Silver City
Lovington
Cobre
Cloudcroft
Artesia
Hatch Valley
Hobbs
Lordsburg
Alamogordo
Eunice
Las Cruces
Loving
Deming
Carlsbad
Jal
Gadsden
Animas

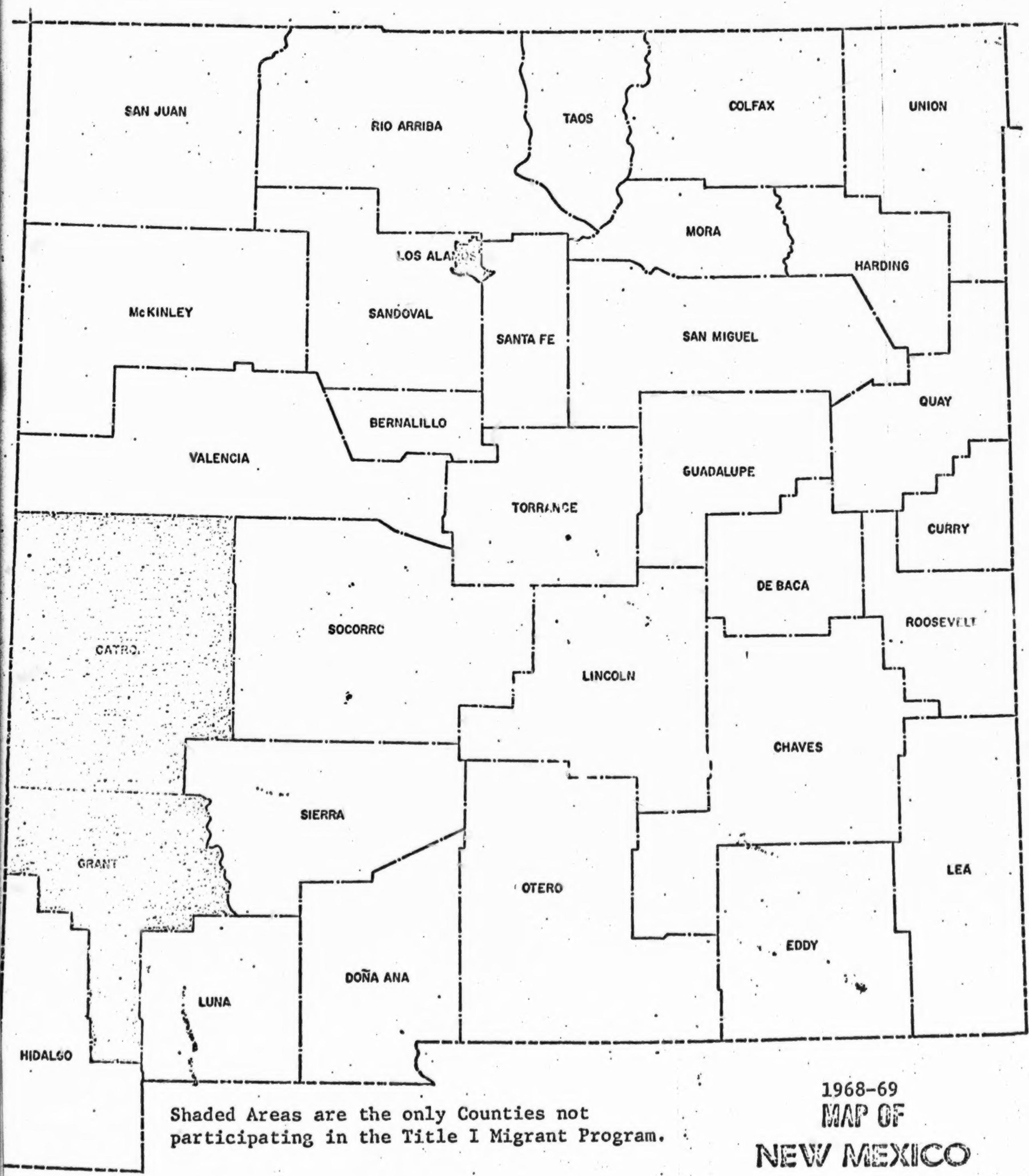
▨ = Districts Not Reporting Migrants as
August 15, 1967

I = Districts Participating in the Titl
Migrant Program and Area Numeral
1968-69

Migrant Area Map Showing Areas:

Area #	Contact School
I	Deming
II	Dexter
III	Portales
IV	Santa Rosa
V	Raton
VI	Taos
VII	Gallup

SCHOOL DISTRICT MAP OF NEW MEXICO


SAN JUAN
RIO ARRIBA
TAOS
COLFAX
UNION
MORA
HARDING
LOS ALAMOS
McKINLEY
SANDOVAL
SANTA FE
SAN MIGUEL
QUAY
BERNALILLO
VALENCIA
GUADALUPE
TORRANCE
CURRY
DE BACA
SOCORRO
ROOSEVELT
CATRON
LINCOLN
CHAVES
SIERRA
GRANT
LEA
OTERO
EDDY
DOÑA ANA
LUNA
HIDALGO

Shaded Areas are the only Counties not participating in the Title I Migrant Program.

1968-69
MAP OF
NEW MEXICO

DATA ON MIGRATORY CHILDREN BY GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS:

Identification of areas and estimated numbers of migrant children expected to move into and/or out of each migrant area, including both intra and interstate children.

Migrant Areas	Estimated Actual Numbers	
I	4,698	
II	1,899	
III	1,350	
IV	450	
V	550	
VI	603	
VII	638	
	10,188	TOTAL

Total estimated number of migrant children expected to move into and/or out of each migrant area by school age breakdown.

Migrant Area	Pre-Kindergtn Ages 3 & 4	Kindergtn Ages 5 & 6	Elementary	Secondary
I	313	626	2,506	1,253
II	126	254	1,013	506
III	90	180	720	360
IV	30	60	240	120
V	37	73	293	147
VI	40	81	321	161
VII	42	83	342	171
TOTALS	678	1,357	5,435	2,718

Origin of the children (home state) and state(s) where these children may be going.

Areas	Home States		States (Destination)	
I	Arizona	Ohio	Arizona	Ohio
	California	Oregon	California	Oregon
	Colorado	Texas	Colorado	Texas
	New Mexico	Mexico	Minnesota	
II	Arizona	New Mexico	Arizona	Oklahoma
	Arkansas	Oklahoma	Arkansas	Oregon
	California	Oregon	California	Texas
	Colorado	Texas	Colorado	Utah
	Florida	Utah	Florida	Washington
	Louisiana	Washington	Louisiana	
	Nebraska	Mexico	Nebraska	

Areas	Home States		States (Destination)	
III	Arizona	New Mexico	Arkansas	Oklahoma
	Arkansas	Oklahoma	Arizona	Texas
	California	Texas	California	
	Colorado	Mexico	Colorado	
IV	Colorado		Arizona	Colorado
	New Mexico		California	Texas
V	Arizona	Nebraska	Arizona	Oklahoma
	Colorado	Oklahoma	Colorado	Texas
	New Mexico	Texas	Nebraska	
VI	Colorado		Arizona	Colorado
	New Mexico		California	Utah
VII	Arizona	New Mexico	Arizona	Idaho
	Colorado	Utah	California	Utah
			Colorado	

Anticipated Arrival and Departure Date

Area	Arrival Date	Departure Date
I	June 1	Sept. 30 (Truck Farming)
	Sept. 15	March 1 (Harvested crops, cotton, etc.)
II	June 15	Feb. 1
	Dec. 1	June 15 (Home base)
	Aug. 1	Nov. 1 (In-migration)
III	Aug. 15	March 1
IV	Oct. 30	April 30 (Home base)
	May 30	Dec. 15 (In-migration)
V	April 15	Oct. 15 (In-migration)
	Oct. 15	June 1 (Home base)
VI	July 15	Oct. 15 (Home base)
VII	Oct. 30	April 30 (Home base)
	Aug. 15	Nov. 1 (In-migration)

The number of children of migratory workers has increased each year since the first program in 1966. For the 1968-69 fiscal year, the total appropriation for migrant programs for the state of New Mexico was $602,358.00, based on the needs of 10,188 children who qualify for the services provided under Title I Migrant Programs criteria. New Mexico ranks fourteenth in amount of appropriations for these programs among the fifty states. Table 3-7 shows the allotments of funds for programs for migratory children in funding level order, and Table 3-8 presents data indicating implementation of programs for these children.

The needs of the children of migratory workers in New Mexico correspond very closely to the needs of migrants described in the review of literature. Low self-esteem, lack of self-confidence, and lack of self-pride have been items most often listed on teacher observation forms and in anecdotal records. Therefore, all New Mexico programs for migrant children include the improvement of self-concept as one objective.

VI. SUMMARY

The review of literature related to migration and self-concept revealed that the migrant child is particularly vulnerable to negative self-concepts. Because of the

TABLE 3-7

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education
STATE PROGRAMS FOR MIGRATORY CHILDREN ALLOTMENTS FOR FISCAL YEAR 1969

State	Amount	State	Amount
TOTAL	$45,556,074		
Texas	11,512,283	Minnesota	$ 218,610
Florida	6,602,899	Delaware	197,722
California	6,089,743	Massachusetts	187,539
Michigan	2,351,495	Maryland	163,076
New York	1,756,017	North Dakota	149,767
Washington	1,313,790	Nebraska	134,955
New Jersey	1,293,275	Utah	124,531
Arizona	1,246,410	Wyoming	93,563
Oregon	1,173,592	Tennessee	84,484
North Carolina	915,606	Iowa	47,179
Colorado	902,440	Kentucky	39,499
Ohio	786,686	South Dakota	22,218
Mississippi	616,347	New Hampshire	9,326
New Mexico*	602,358	West Virginia	5,212
Idaho	538,721	Maine	4,389
Virginia	461,369	Vermont	3,566
Montana	460,565	Nevada	1,458
Oklahoma	458,078	Alaska	-
Arkansas	445,186	Hawaii	-
Indiana	432,294	Rhode Island	-
Connecticut	426,194	District of Columbia	-
Illinois	424,673		
Alabama	421,322		
Kansas	395,401	Reserved	550,000
South Carolina	381,548	(Set-aside money for the development of Migrant Record Exchange System is approximately $7,000 for New Mexico, so we really have in the area of $609,000 for New Mexico's Migrant Program this year).	
Pennsylvania	321,304		
Georgia	318,460		
Wisconsin	306,145		
Louisiana	289,384		
Missouri	275,395		

* New Mexico ranks fourteenth in funding-level order.

TABLE 3-8

STATE OF NEW MEXICO

MIGRANT PROGRAM FACT SHEET

	1968	1969	1970 (Projected)
Eligible school districts participating	46	61	61
Eligible students in N. M.	8,153	10,188	10,188
Participating students in N. M.	4,863	6,113	7,000
Certified administrative personnel	2FT/1PT	2FT	1FT
Certified instructional personnel	4FT/44PT	9FT/55PT	13FT/62PT
Other certified personnel	5PT	3PT	6PT
Total certified personnel	6FT/50PT	11FT/58PT	14FT/68PT
Non-certified adminis. personnel	1FT/3PT	1FT/2PT	1FT/4PT
Non-certified instruct. personnel	75PT	111PT	125PT
Other non-certified personnel	20PT	15PT	10PT
Total non-certified personnel	1FT/98PT	1FT/128PT	1FT/139PT
ESEA Migrant appropriations to New Mexico	$564,301	$602,358	$602,358
Approved budgets for school district projects	$529,005	$529,005	$577,512
Expended for school district projects	$512,302*	$120,002*	
Approved budget for state administration	$ 35,296	$ 35,296	$ 24,846
Expended for state adminis.	$ 22,768*	$ 16,285*	-0-
Per Pupil Budget	$ 108	$ 86	$ 82
Per Pupil Expenditure	$ 105	-0-	-0-

(*) As of December 31, 1968
"FT" - "PT" indicate full time and part time respectively

unstable and often hostile components in the environment, the migrant family moves again and again in search of "green pastures" that might result in security and happiness. Migrant populations are heavily concentrated in a few migrant streams, but forty-seven of the fifty states report migrant workers and state programs for migrant children.

Also reviewed in this chapter was the literature related to migration and education of the children of migrant workers in New Mexico. This review indicated that many of the migrant children in this state are caught up in all the persistent problems of seasonal agricultural employment, in addition to the problem of learning to become proficient in English as a second language.

The review of literature reported in this chapter supported the previous suggestion that the need exists for research centered around the development and measurement of self-concepts. Further, the need for self-concept centered research is even greater among the children of migratory workers.

CHAPTER IV

DESCRIPTION OF PUPIL SAMPLES, PROCEDURES AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to measure and analyze the self-concepts of select groups of fourth- and sixth-grade children in New Mexico, and to determine the relationship of self-concept to other variables. The four grade groups were chosen on the assumption that children of the ages which are usually found in these grades are involved in a crucial period of their lives. According to Bledsoe and Garrison, "This is a period of transition from dependence on parents and teachers to independence and growing maturity, a period when interests, personalities, and self-concepts are crystallizing." (Bledsoe and Garrison, 1963).

It was a further purpose of this study to compare the findings in regard to self-concept, among selected Spanish-surname migrant children of the Southwest, with the findings of similar studies involving impoverished white children in Georgia and disadvantaged Negro children in Louisiana in parallel grades.

II. PUPIL POPULATION

The selected groups of fourth- and sixth-grade students were chosen from the area of New Mexico most highly populated by Spanish-surname migrants. The economy of the area is largely based on commercial agriculture, involving the cultivation and harvest of lettuce and other food crops and the care of trees and harvest of nut crops from pecan orchards. These agricultural industries require the help of hand labor and they attract the unskilled laboring class. Many of the families in this area have come to New Mexico within the last few years, and are identified as migrants if they have made a major move within the last five years. Ninety per cent of the children included in the sample population have Spanish surnames. The sample consisted of all fourth- and sixth-grade children from five elementary schools which were considered to be representative schools of this area.

III. ASSESSMENT OF SELF-CONCEPT AND OTHER VARIABLES

Five of the instruments which were used in the comparison investigation to assess self-concept, intellectual ability, achievement, and anxiety were administered to the 428 students participating in this study. The Michigan Picture Test and the Interest Inventory were omitted. The

Self-Concept Battery (Appendices B and C), including the Child's Self-Description Scale, and the Child's Manifest Anxiety Scale (Appendix D) were administered to all children who were present in the fourth and sixth grades in the five schools on a given day. The Stanford Achievement Test and California Test of Mental Maturity were administered on earlier dates at one-week intervals.

IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purposes of this chapter are to present the statistical treatment of data, to report the findings, and to make comparisons between the results of this study and the Bledsoe and Garrison (1963) and Henton and Johnson (1964) studies. Means, standard deviations, frequency distributions, and Pearson correlation coefficients between self-concept and other variables were obtained. A descriptive analysis of data is presented in tables and the accompanying narrative. In this analysis of data, groups A, B, C, and D refer to fourth-grade boys, fourth-grade girls, sixth-grade boys, and sixth-grade girls, respectively.

Self-Concept - Ideal Self

The Self-Concept Scale (Appendix B), adapted by Bills and others (1951), was designed to measure the discrepancy between the self-concept and the ideal self. Two adaptations and revisions of this instrument are described in Chapter II. In this study, 428 fourth- and sixth-grade boys and girls participated in marking this instrument to distinguish between "this is the way I am" and "this is the way I'd like to be."

The introduction to the testing instrument and directions for marking were read aloud in both English and Spanish by the person administering the test. The students were allowed sufficient time between each item to supply answers. The results of this investigation are presented in Tables 4-1 through 4-4. The highest self-concept scores were noted in the fourth-grade girls group, and the lowest scores were among sixth-grade boys.

In comparing the self-concept scores to those obtained in Georgia and Louisiana, the New Mexico fourth-grade students scored higher than their Louisiana counterparts and lower than the fourth-grade children in Georgia. The scores of sixth-grade students participating in this study were minimally lower than those of sixth-grade students in Louisiana and somewhat lower than those of students in Georgia. The self-ideal scores for all groups of children responding to this instrument were significantly lower than were those of children in Georgia, and significantly higher than those obtained from children participating in the Louisiana study.

TABLE 4-1

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE OF SEVERAL MEASURES OF SELF-CONCEPT AND MANIFEST ANXIETY AMONG GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS

Variable		Group					
		A(123)	B(89)	A+B(212)	C(122)	D(94)	C+D(216)
Self-Concept	$\bar{X}$	66.16	67.59	66.76	65.61	66.43	65.97
	s	11.37	10.25	10.94	10.94	11.13	10.86
Self-Ideal	$\bar{X}$	75.13	77.82	76.25	78.82	82.13	80.26
	s	10.99	9.62	10.52	9.97	8.73	9.59
Personal-Social Orientation	$\bar{X}$	20.78	21.41	21.04	20.71	21.40	21.01
	s	2.84	3.55	3.17	2.30	2.21	2.29
Manifest Anxiety	$\bar{X}$	21.11	23.32	22.04	20.16	20.88	20.47
	s	5.57	6.39	6.03	6.41	6.07	6.27

	Tests of Significance				
	A - B	C - D	A - C	B - D	(A+B)-(B+D)
Self-Concept	-.96	-.546	.39	.73	.53
Self-Ideal	-1.89	-2.59**	-2.75**	3.17**	2.93**
Personal-Social Orientation	-.93	-.72	.21	.02	.08
Manifest Anxiety	-3.26**	-.84	1.23	2.65**	1.87

* Significant at the .05 level
** Significant at the .01 level

TABLE 4-2

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SELF-CONCEPT SCORES OF SELECT GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS

IDEAL SELF

Study		Group					
		A	B	A+B	C	D	C+D
New Mexico		(123)	(89)	(212)	(122)	(94)	(216)
	$\bar{X}$	75.13	77.82	76.25	78.82	82.13	80.26
	s	10.99	9.62	10.52	9.97	8.73	9.59
Georgia		(65)	(60)	(125)	(76)	(70)	(146)
	$\bar{X}$	83.14	86.15	84.59	85.80	88.02	86.90
	s	13.26	12.75	13.04	5.93	3.31	7.62
Louisiana		(54)	(68)	(122)	(69)	(106)	(175)
	$\bar{X}$	70.52	64.50	69.18	75.63	76.72	76.29
	s	16.06	24.83	20.61	16.50	14.72	15.45

TABLE 4-3

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SELF-CONCEPT SCORES OF SELECT GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS

PERSONAL-SOCIAL ORIENTATION

Study		Group					
		A	B	A+B	C	D	C+D
New Mexico		(123)	(89)	(212)	(122)	(94)	(216)
	X̄	20.78	21.41	21.04	20.71	21.40	21.01
	s	2.84	3.55	3.17	2.30	2.21	2.29
Georgia		(65)	(60)	(125)	(76)	(70)	(146)
	X̄	21.70	21.08	21.40	20.94	21.17	21.05
	s	2.37	2.66	2.52	2.79	2.36	2.58
Louisiana		(54)	(68)	(122)	(69)	(106)	(175)
	X̄	12.17	11.31	11.69	11.41	11.31	11.35
	s	1.42	1.00	1.37	1.31	1.02	1.14

TABLE 4-4

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SELF-CONCEPT SCORES OF SELECT GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS

Study		Group					
		A	B	A+B	C	D	C+D
New Mexico		(123)	(89)	(212)	(122)	(94)	(216)
	$\bar{X}$	66.16	67.59	66.76	65.61	66.43	65.97
	s	11.37	10.25	10.94	10.64	11.13	10.86
Georgia		(65)	(60)	(125)	(76)	(70)	(146)
	$\bar{X}$	73.05	78.31	75.58	73.83	78.41	76.10
	s	10.05	7.44	9.23	7.96	6.51	7.60
Louisiana		(54)	(68)	(122)	(69)	(106)	(175)
	$\bar{X}$	62.46	64.80	63.76	68.96	69.17	69.09
	s	16.89	22.51	20.25	15.95	13.38	14.45
TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE							
New Mexico - Louisiana		1.46	.948	1.00	1.59	1.97*	2.36*
New Mexico - Georgia		4.47**	5.10**	7.00**	6.27**	8.68*	10.13**

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

Child Self-Description Scale

The Child Self-Description Scale, adapted by Bledsoe and Garrison from the Carlson Self-Description Scale, consists of 95 items organized into 19 pentads, or sets of 5 items each. Each of the 19 sets included at least one "social" and one "personal" statement. The items were selected because of their description of feeling toward self in relationship to the environment and preferences toward activities and future goals. (Appendix C). The first ten pentads present choices between "best liked" and "least liked" school subjects, and aspirations of the students concerning future employment or other activity. The last nine pentads include choices which are more personal and self-revealing. Pentads 1 through 3 and 11 through 19 are included in the analysis of data for this study, and the results appear in Tables 4-5 through 4-17, with frequency distributions and chi square values for equal likelihood choices. The level of acceptance agreed upon was the .01 level where, with four degrees of freedom, the chi square value must be equal to 13.28 to be significant.

The Child Self-Description Scale instruments were also scored for personal-social orientation, and this score correlated with the other variables included in the study. This score was obtained by subtracting the number of social orientation first choices on the last eleven pentads from the number of personal orientation first choices and adding the resulting figure to a base of 20. Thus, scores above 20 implied a personal orientation, and scores below 20 were considered to be indicative of social orientation. The scores had a possible range of 9 to 31 with an expected mean of 20.

Table 4-5 shows the first and last choices of all students on Pentad 1. When choosing the subject "most liked," all groups made choices significantly different from chance. The favorite subject choice appearing with the highest frequency in all groups was art. This corresponds very closely with the findings in the Bledsoe and Garrison study in which the greatest number of fourth-grade boys chose arithmetic, but all other groups chose art. In the Henton and Johnson study, using the same instrument, the children showed a wider range of choices. In that study, the fourth-grade boys chose arithmetic, the fourth-grade girls liked reading best, and the sixth-grade boys and girls most frequently chose arithmetic as their favorite subject. The choice of fourth-grade boys for "least liked" subjects shows them to be the only group that did not make choices significant at the .01 level on this pentad. The fourth-grade boys seemed to be rather neutral to choices on subjects "least liked"; therefore, the hypotheses of no sex

TABLE 4-5

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 1: Which of these is your favorite school subject?
Which one do you like least?

1. reading
2. arithmetic
3. history
4. science
5. art

Group	First Choice (Most Liked)						
	1	2	3	4	5	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	17	37	4	13	49	3	123
Fourth Girls	20	20	7	6	30	6	89
Sixth Boys	11	38	11	17	45	0	122
Sixth Girls	16	26	8	10	34	0	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Liked)						
	1	2	3	4	5	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	24	25	33	22	16	3	123
Fourth Girls	9	24	21	24	7	4	89
Sixth Boys	24	36	29	19	13	1	122
Sixth Girls	15	27	27	15	9	1	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Liked	Least Liked
Fourth Boys	56.80**	6.21
Fourth Girls	24.53**	16.03**
Sixth Boys	41.93**	13.00**
Sixth Girls	25.79**	13.93**

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Liked	Least Liked
Boys	99.07**	19.29**
Girls	51.07**	30.54**

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Liked	Least Liked
Fourth Grade	93.99**	26.85**
Sixth Grade	83.81**	26.59**

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

difference were rejected except for the choices in the fourth-grade "least liked" category.

Table 4-6 presents the first and last choices of all students on the items for selection in Pentad 2. Here again the hypothesis of equal likelihood choices must be rejected except in the case of the fourth-grade boys' "least liked" of the proposed vocational choices. The neutral attitudes of fourth-grade boys toward choices were near to that expected by chance. The total choices were highly in favor of the vocation of "scientist." However, more girls at both the fourth- and sixth-grade levels listed "actor" as that which they would most like to be. "Engineer" and "office manager" received more "least like" choices for girls, while the "least like" choices for boys were more evenly distributed among the five items. The choices of fourth- and sixth-grade boys were overwhelmingly in favor of "scientist" as a vocational choice, and "actor" was the second choice. In the Bledsoe and Garrison study, and in the Henton and Johnson study, the choices ran the same for first choice for boys, but "engineer" was the second choice. In the New Mexico study, "engineer" received a high frequency of "least liked" choices among fourth- and sixth-grade girls. The same was found in the two comparison studies.

Table 4-7 presents frequency distributions of choices on Pentad 3 of all children involved in this study. The

TABLE 4-6

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 2: Which of these would you like most to be when you are older? Which least?
6. scientist
7. reporter
8. office manager
9. actor
10. engineer

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	6	7	8	9	10	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	45	5	19	25	27	2	123
Fourth Girls	24	6	16	39	2	2	89
Sixth Boys	45	5	16	22	34	0	122
Sixth Girls	27	7	26	31	2	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	6	7	8	9	10	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	23	24	20	26	27	3	123
Fourth Girls	9	14	8	15	39	4	89
Sixth Boys	14	36	21	32	16	3	122
Sixth Girls	18	15	5	15	40	1	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	34.57**	1.25*
Fourth Girls	50.53**	37.76**
Sixth Boys	39.72**	15.99**
Sixth Girls	37.05**	35.97**

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	74.32**	39.41**
Girls	87.33**	74.02**

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	88.05**	38.75**
Sixth Grade	81.04**	52.71**

* Significant at .05 level.
** Significant at .01 level.

TABLE 4-7

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 3: Here are some things which many of you will expect to do later on. Which is most important to you? Which least?

11. go to college
12. get married someday
13. get a job right after high school
14. travel a lot
15. make a great deal of money

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	11	12	13	14	15	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	61	12	27	4	17	2	123
Fourth Girls	52	8	14	2	9	4	89
Sixth Boys	69	11	22	5	14	1	122
Sixth Girls	61	9	12	7	4	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	11	12	13	14	15	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	10	53	13	37	7	3	123
Fourth Girls	10	33	14	21	7	4	89
Sixth Boys	6	37	28	32	15	4	122
Sixth Girls	6	28	16	22	20	2	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	81.43**	67.33**
Fourth Girls	82.79**	25.29**
Sixth Boys	109.86**	27.67**
Sixth Girls	122.64**	14.40**

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	191.30**	77.71**
Girls	218.64**	39.66**

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	179.82**	89.75**
Sixth Grade	234.50**	47.05**

* Significant at .05 level.
** Significant at .01 level.

items in this pentad are related to activities which the pupil may expect to do later on. The first choice was significantly greater for the "go to college" item than for any other choice. It was interesting to note that, although the educational levels of attainment for parents of the participating students was extremely low, and only a very few came from homes where either parent was a college graduate (see Table 4-8 in regard to educational level of parents), approximately two-thirds of the children indicated that they expect to attend college. The same high percentages for choice of the college item was found in the Bledsoe and Garrison and in the Henton and Johnson studies.

The students in this study indicated that the activity they least expect to do is "to get married someday." The same results were found in the Henton and Johnson study, but the children participating in the Bledsoe and Garrison study indicated that they least expected to "get a job right after school." Although the majority of the students in the New Mexico study did not choose "get a job right after school" as that which was either most important or least important to them, it was interesting to note that of those making this choice there were approximately twice as many boys as girls in both the fourth and the sixth grades who chose this item as a realistic expectation.

TABLE 4-8

REPORTED EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF PARENTS OF SELECT GROUPS OF FOURTH AND SIXTH GRADE BOYS AND GIRLS

Group Reporting	Level of Education for at Least One Parent				
	No.	High School	Some College	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree
4th-Grade Boys	123	28	3	3	0
4th-Grade Girls	89	19	4	1	0
6th-Grade Boys	122	18	6	2	0
6th-Grade Girls	94	16	3	2	1
Totals	428	81	16	8	1

Of the 428 children involved in the study, only 81 reported one or both parents as high school graduates. Sixteen children came from homes where at least one parent had some college experience, and 8 children reported parents with bachelor's degrees. One parent had attained a master's degree.

The equal likelihood hypothesis must be rejected for all groups for both "most important" and "least important" choices. All sets of choices were significantly different from that of chance and all chi square values were above that set by the .01 level, and some values were very high.

The choices available in the eleven pentads from 9 to 19 provide for student choices between personally oriented activities involving, primarily, only the individual himself, and socially oriented activities requiring some social interaction of the individual with other persons. Among the five choices, there are always two or three of the personal or social orientation choices. Pentads 11 through 19 were analyzed for this study. Table 4-9 gives the frequency distribution and chi square values for equal likelihood of choices that were available in Pentad 11. All equal likelihood hypotheses for both "most liked" and "least liked" choices were rejected. The first choices of "most like" were almost equally divided between "I usually pick out my own clothes" and "I like to run and play hard," with the girls choosing the clothes item and the boys selecting the item indicating play by substantial majorities in each case. Therefore, the choices for all groups are significantly greater than would be expected by chance. The "least like" choice for both boys and girls in fourth and sixth grades included a social orientation choice, "I like to sing or

TABLE 4-9

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 11: Which one of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?

51. I usually pick out my own clothes?
52. I read a lot for fun.
53. I like to run and play hard.
54. I like to sing or speak in front of people.
55. I like to be the leader of games.

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	51	52	53	54	55	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	25	8	41	19	30	0	123
Fourth Girls	33	14	15	16	11	0	89
Sixth Boys	32	23	52	5	10	0	122
Sixth Girls	42	15	20	6	10	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	51	52	53	54	55	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	25	17	15	44	22	0	123
Fourth Girls	13	8	16	29	23	0	89
Sixth Boys	13	17	9	57	26	0	122
Sixth Girls	10	17	8	41	17	1	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	24.60**	52.75**
Fourth Girls	17.01**	14.43**
Sixth Boys	57.59**	60.95**
Sixth Girls	44.85**	39.12**

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	69.11**	83.46**
Girls	54.70**	47.65**

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	21.25**	32.90**
Sixth Grade	78.60**	89.32**

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .01 level

speak in front of people." In the Bledsoe and Garrison study, the choices were almost evenly divided between the same items with sixth-grade girls highly favoring the clothes item and sixth-grade boys choosing hard play as the item most like themselves. Paradoxically, for the "least like" choice, all groups preferred not to perform in front of people. All groups in the Henton and Johnson study indicated that they pick out their own clothes. For "least like" choices, the children in the Louisiana study indicated a preference not to be the leader of games.

Table 4-10 gives the frequency distribution and chi square values for tests of equal likelihood of choice by sex and grade for Pentad 12. The equal likelihood hypotheses were rejected for all "most like" choices except those of sixth-grade girls, and for all "least like" choices except those of sixth-grade boys. In the comparison data, all equal choice hypotheses were rejected in the Bledsoe and Garrison studies, and in all groups except fourth-grade boys in the Henton and Johnson study. In the New Mexico study, the students as a group chose the item regarding individual preoccupation with dangerous things. However, the second choice indicated a concern for individual health. The same choices were significantly higher for students in the Bledsoe and Garrison study, but students in the Henton and Johnson study indicated that their greatest concern was

TABLE 4-10

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 12: Which of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?

56. I think about a lot of dangerous things.
57. I have to be very careful of my health.
58. I'm not doing as well as I should in school work.
59. I don't like my first name.
60. It bothers me a lot to lose at games.

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	56	57	58	59	60	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	47	32	11	6	27	0	123
Fourth Girls	17	33	21	11	7	0	89
Sixth Boys	38	23	39	7	15	0	122
Sixth Girls	22	27	22	10	12	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	56	57	58	59	60	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	28	16	22	28	29	0	123
Fourth Girls	29	8	15	21	16	0	89
Sixth Boys	27	14	29	21	30	1	122
Sixth Girls	25	7	11	22	28	1	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	44.43**	19.12**
Fourth Girls	22.74**	13.64**
Sixth Boys	32.99**	7.38
Sixth Girls	11.35*	17.91**

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	54.65**	10.26*
Girls	31.22**	25.44**

Grade Hypothesis	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	34.17**	14.88**
Sixth Grade	37.07**	18.58**

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

that they were not doing as well as they should in school work.

In choosing an item considered to be "least like," the majority of the New Mexico students divided their choices almost equally between the "dangerous things" item and "I don't like my first name." No choice was offered for rejection of last names, but since most first names and surnames by students in this study are those often chosen by the Spanish-speaking people, one might conjecture that the name is somehow related to self-concept. On the "least like" items, all groups in the Henton and Johnson study, except fourth-grade boys, chose most frequently "I think about a lot of dangerous things"; fourth-grade boys chose "It bothers me to lose at games." In the Bledsoe and Johnson studies, the groups indicated that they were not concerned about losing at games, and chose this item as "least like" themselves.

Table 4-11 presents the frequency distributions by sex and by grade of first and last choices on Pentad 13, with chi square values for tests of equal likelihood, sex, and grade differences in choices. The hypotheses of equal likelihood were rejected in all of the "most like" choices except those of sixth-grade girls and in the "least like" choices of fourth-grade boys. The differences in choices were not significant at the .01 level for sixth grade in the

TABLE 4-11

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 13: Which of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?

61. I spend a lot of time keeping neat and attractive.
62. I've helped to plan a lot of parties.
63. I save most of my spending money.
64. I've had better luck than most people I know.
65. I spend a lot of my time on my hobbies.

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	61	62	63	64	65	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	21	10	42	17	33	0	123
Fourth Girls	26	11	27	5	20	0	89
Sixth Boys	20	12	29	17	44	0	122
Sixth Girls	20	11	30	12	20	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	61	62	63	64	65	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	26	20	19	24	34	0	123
Fourth Girls	15	9	16	20	29	0	89
Sixth Boys	21	24	32	24	21	0	122
Sixth Girls	16	17	15	18	27	1	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	26.71**	5.19
Fourth Girls	20.60**	12.29*
Sixth Boys	25.74**	3.31
Sixth Girls	12.64*	5.01

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	83.65**	1.43
Girls	30.58**	15.19**

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	40.45**	13.79*
Sixth Grade	30.27**	1.91

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

"most like" choices, nor for fourth-grade girls and sixth-grade girls and boys in the "least like" choices. The boys-girls hypothesis was rejected except for "least like" choices for boys, and the only significant difference found between grades was in sixth-grade "least like" choices.

The item most frequently chosen for "most like" was "I save most of my spending money." The second choice here was "I spend a lot of time on my hobbies." The same two items were first and second choice for total group choices in the Bledsoe and Garrison study, and although the frequency of choices was reversed, the differences between the number of children choosing these items was negligible. In the Henton and Johnson studies, the choice for all groups for a "most like" item was significantly higher for "I spend a lot of time keeping neat and attractive," which was not an item chosen by either of the other two groups of children.

In choosing an item suggestive of "least like" self, the New Mexico students distributed their choices rather evenly between the five items. There was a slightly higher frequency of choices for the hobbies item, and the same was true of students in the Bledsoe and Garrison study. In the comparison data of the Henton and Johnson study, the students most often chose the item relating to saving money as a "least like" choice. "Least like" choices were not significantly different from that to be expected by chance in the New Mexico study, nor in the two comparison studies for Pentad 13.

Table 4-12 shows the frequency distribution and chi square values for tests of equal likelihood of choices on Pentad 14. The equal likelihood hypotheses were rejected for all "most like" choices, for girls in the equal likelihood choice by sex in "least like" choices, and by fourth- and sixth-grade "least like" choices. Very strong preferences were indicated in all "most like" choices resulting in exceptionally high and very significant chi square values. The most significant difference was found in the sixth-grade boys and girls in the "most like" choices. The item marked with the highest frequency for the total group was "I think a lot about the mistakes I've made." The total score was heavily weighted by high scores at the sixth-grade level, but fourth-grade boys and girls also chose this item with greater frequency. This finding compares more closely to the results of the Bledsoe and Garrison study; but, the students in the Henton and Johnson study also chose this item often enough for this "most like" choice to be significant at the .01 level.

The item most often chosen as "least like" by New Mexico children in this pentad was "People treat me like a baby too much of the time." The choice for students in the Bledsoe and Garrison study was "Some kids think I'm too

TABLE 4-12

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 14: Which of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?
66. I think a lot about mistakes I've made.
67. Some kids think I'm too bossy.
68. I have a lot of bad dreams.
69. People treat me like a baby too much of the time.
70. People hurt my feelings a lot.

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	66	67	68	69	70	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	49	11	29	6	28	0	123
Fourth Girls	39	4	25	5	15	1	89
Sixth Boys	74	7	11	8	22	0	122
Sixth Girls	56	2	5	5	25	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	66	67	68	69	70	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	15	18	28	31	30	1	123
Fourth Girls	10	17	15	27	20	0	89
Sixth Boys	13	35	24	23	26	1	122
Sixth Girls	9	25	15	22	21	2	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	47.04**	8.86
Fourth Girls	48.50**	8.92
Sixth Boys	131.85**	10.12*
Sixth Girls	112.10**	8.78

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	158.04**	11.02*
Girls	68.48**	15.24**

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	93.18**	15.54**
Sixth Grade	241.16**	17.81**

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

bossy," and for the students in the Henton and Johnson study, the choices were almost equally divided between "I have a lot of bad dreams" and 'People hurt my feelings a lot."

Pentad 15 offered choices of self-description related to team play, acting as mediator in arguments between other children, self-autonomy in new tasks, personal health, and time spent with friends. The equal likelihood hypothesis must be rejected for all groups except "least like" choices for sixth-grade girls. For all three of the studies compared, the "most like" choices in this pentad for all groups were significantly in favor of "I like to play in team games against other schools." By grade and sex, the students in the New Mexico study still favored the same item. However, in the Bledsoe and Garrison study, sixth-grade girls chose "I'd rather figure things out for myself before asking for help," with the highest frequency. The Henton and Johnson findings on this item were the same as those for the New Mexico study.

With respect to "least like" choices, the choice for all groups in the New Mexico study was for "My friends spend a lot of time at my house." The students in the Louisiana study (Henton and Johnson, 1964), made the same choice with the greatest frequency. The "least like" choice for the students in the Georgia study (Bledsoe and Garrison, 1963),

TABLE 4-13

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 15: Which one of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?

71. I like to play in team games against other schools.
72. I can usually get kids to stop arguing and make up.
73. I'd rather figure things out for myself before asking for help.
74. I'm practically never sick.
75. My friends spend a lot of time at my house.

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	71	72	73	74	75	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	75	6	20	15	7	0	123
Fourth Girls	37	3	27	11	11	0	89
Sixth Boys	81	6	18	11	6	0	122
Sixth Girls	60	6	16	7	4	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	71	72	73	74	75	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	7	32	30	19	35	0	123
Fourth Girls	7	16	14	22	30	0	89
Sixth Boys	4	25	20	26	46	1	122
Sixth Girls	9	23	15	21	25	1	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	134.52**	21.67**
Fourth Girls	42.96**	16.89**
Sixth Boys	168.08**	37.09**
Sixth Girls	119.74**	9.20*

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	293.95**	51.87**
Girls	144.59**	23.82**

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	161.44**	31.91**
Sixth Grade	287.44**	41.60**

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

was "I can usually get kids to stop arguing and make up." The choices of students in the three comparison studies varied so greatly from that expected by chance on the "most like" choices that the equal likelihood hypothesis was rejected in all groups except that of sixth-grade girls who participated in the Bledsoe and Garrison study. In the New Mexico study, the highest chi square values were obtained on the equal likelihood hypotheses related to sex and grade. Fourth- and sixth-grade boys and all sixth-grade students combined made choices so significantly different from that expected by chance on this pentad that the chi square values were 293.95 and 237.44 respectively.

Pentad 16 offered choices related to ideas that do not turn out well, desires for better clothes, making oneself do things that he does not like to do, making friends with people not liked, and thinking that grown-ups are too strict. In this series of choices, all groups in the New Mexico study made choices which were more evenly distributed among the five items. The equal likelihood hypothesis was affirmed in the "most like" choices made by fourth-grade girls and by sixth-grade boys and girls. The hypothesis was rejected in the "most like" choices by fourth-grade boys and in the "least like" choices for fourth-grade boys and girls. When comparing the choices by grades and by sex, the equal likelihood hypothesis was rejected at the .01 level by all groups

TABLE 4-14

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 16: Which of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?

76. My ideas don't turn out very well.
77. I wish I had better looking clothes.
78. Sometimes I can't make myself do things I like even when I'm invited to do them.
79. It's hard to make friends with the people I like best.
80. I think most grown-ups are too strict.

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	76	77	78	79	80	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	38	20	29	22	14	0	123
Fourth Girls	24	18	21	20	6	0	89
Sixth Boys	38	14	27	20	23	0	122
Sixth Girls	21	21	21	10	20	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	76	77	78	79	80	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	31	19	17	13	43	0	123
Fourth Girls	26	12	11	2	38	0	89
Sixth Boys	32	19	19	19	32	1	122
Sixth Girls	28	11	14	14	26	1	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	13.78**	24.52**
Fourth Girls	10.83*	45.21**
Sixth Boys	13.16*	8.31
Sixth Girls	5.01	13.07*

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	25.06**	29.61**
Girls	7.17	49.37**

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	22.71**	65.83**
Sixth Grade	11.95*	20.53**

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

except in the "most like" items for girls and for sixth-grade students. Table 4-14 provides the frequency distributions and chi square values for Pentad 16.

In the New Mexico and Georgia studies, each group chose "My ideas don't turn out very well" as the "most like" item in the series. All groups in these two studies were parallel again in choosing "I think grown-ups are too strict" as being characteristic of their feelings toward adults. The children in the Louisiana study divided their choices more evenly between the five "most like" items, and definite preferences were significant only for sixth-grade boys and girls for "most like" choices and for "least like" choices made by fourth-grade girls. The sixth-grade boys chose "My ideas don't turn out very well" by a small majority, and the sixth-grade girls felt that "It's hard to make friends with the people I like best" was an item "most like" themselves. For "least like," the students in the Louisiana study also chose "My ideas don't turn out very well" with a higher frequency, but the majority was not significant except in combined "most like" choices of sixth-grade boys and girls.

Definite preferences for self-description choices of "most like" and "least like" items offered in Pentad 17 are presented in Table 4-15 . All groups indicated they felt that "Parents usually give me the things I want" was "most

TABLE 4-15

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 17: Which one of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?

81. I generally do my work around the house without being told what to do.
82. My parents usually try to give me the things I want.
83. I usually try to get my folks' advice before I make up my mind about things.
84. My folks are interested in helping me with my school work.
85. At home I usually help decide what the family is going to do.

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	81	82	83	84	85	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	38	33	17	21	14	0	123
Fourth Girls	28	35	7	13	6	0	89
Sixth Boys	28	43	28	13	10	0	122
Sixth Girls	26	31	16	16	4	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	81	82	83	84	85	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	25	23	12	19	44	0	123
Fourth Girls	20	11	12	14	32	0	89
Sixth Boys	39	11	15	17	40	0	122
Sixth Girls	27	12	7	17	30	1	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	17.61**	23.14**
Fourth Girls	38.13**	16.89**
Sixth Boys	29.06**	39.93**
Sixth Girls	23.39**	20.49**

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	38.44**	47.51**
Girls	58.16**	35.14**

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	50.07**	38.57**
Sixth Grade	49.30**	50.69**

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

like" their life situations, and that "At home I usually help decide what the family is going to do" was the "least like" item. The equal likelihood hypotheses were rejected for all groups for both "most like" and "least like" choices, and the chi square values were well above those required for significance at the .01 level. Students in the Georgia study chose "My folks are interested in helping me with my school work" as "most like" item, and "At home I usually help decide what the family is going to do" as "least like" themselves. The children in the Louisiana study divided their choices equally between the item which indicated responsibility with home chores and the item concerned with parents' willingness to give children what they want. Although it is obvious that the children did not chose an item for both "most like" and "least like" characteristic, it is interesting to note that "I generally do my work around the house without being told" was also a "least like" choice for a majority of the students.

Table 4-16 presents the frequency distribution of children's choices of self-description items for Pentad 18. Choices were almost evenly divided between the item that indicated an emotional response to a sad story, and a preference for playing with younger children. Although the former was checked as "most like" with a slightly higher frequency, sixth-grade boys, by a substantial majority,

TABLE 4-16

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 18: Which of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?

86. I don't like to borrow or lend things.
87. When I read a very sad story, I can't help crying a little.
88. I don't care much about dogs or other pets.
89. I have my best times with boys and girls who are younger.
90. I'd rather do things with grown-ups--it's boring to play with kids all the time.

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	86	87	88	89	90	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	20	26	20	21	36	0	123
Fourth Girls	13	29	16	24	7	0	89
Sixth Boys	26	20	19	34	23	0	122
Sixth Girls	11	31	12	21	18	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	86	87	88	89	90	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	42	18	20	15	28	0	123
Fourth Girls	25	17	8	6	33	0	89
Sixth Boys	37	20	19	13	33	0	122
Sixth Girls	22	14	17	12	28	1	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	7.61	19.15**
Fourth Girls	17.23**	29.14**
Sixth Boys	5.95	16.85**
Sixth Girls	14.04**	8.98

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	5.18	34.81**
Girls	27.07**	33.38**

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	6.96	39.41**
Sixth Grade	9.11	24.04**

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

chose "I have my best times with boys and girls who are younger" as the item "most like" themselves. The boys chose "I don't like to borrow or lend things" in the "least like" category. The girls decided that "I'd rather do things with grown-ups--it's boring to play with kids all the time" was the "least like" item most applicable to their group. The equal likelihood hypothesis was rejected in the data received from girls for "most like" choices, and for all fourth-grade students and sixth-grade boys for the "least like" choices.

In the comparison studies, the overall choice for the "most like" item was "When I read a very sad story, I can't help crying a little," but the choice was higher among both fourth- and sixth-grade girls than among boys of the same grades. The students in the Louisiana study selected "I don't like to borrow or lend things" as "least like" item in the series, and students in the Georgia study indicated that "I don't care about dogs or other pets" was "least like" themselves.

Pentad 19 presented five additional self-description choices. Table 4-17 provides data according to frequency distribution of choices and chi square values for significance of preferences. The equal likelihood hypothesis was rejected for all "most like" choices and affirmed for all "least like" choices. Spanish-surname migrant children

TABLE 4-17

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION BY SEX AND BY GRADE OF FIRST AND LAST CHOICES ON THE CHILD SELF-DESCRIPTION SCALE AND CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR TESTS OF EQUAL LIKELIHOOD

Pentad 19: Which one of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?

91. I take time to be sure I know the answer before I say things in class.
92. I can usually take a joke on myself without feeling bad.
93. I've worked on projects to raise money for school or community drives.
94. I usually tell people when they have done something well.
95. People seem to think I'm rather nice looking.

Group	First Choice (Most Like)						
	91	92	93	94	95	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	58	12	13	15	25	0	123
Fourth Girls	42	10	8	13	16	0	89
Sixth Boys	51	27	7	28	9	0	122
Sixth Girls	40	20	7	17	9	1	94

Group	Last Choice (Least Like)						
	91	92	93	94	95	Omit	Total
Fourth Boys	19	30	20	24	29	1	123
Fourth Girls	13	18	14	16	28	0	89
Sixth Boys	25	29	23	18	27	0	122
Sixth Girls	19	19	14	17	23	2	94

Equal Likelihood Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Boys	61.02**	4.12
Fourth Girls	43.19**	8.13
Sixth Boys	51.93**	2.91
Sixth Girls	37.05**	2.33

Boy-Girl Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Boys	97.99**	5.28
Girls	75.53**	8.65

Grade Hypothesis:	Most Like	Least Like
Fourth Grade	10.38*	10.11*
Sixth Grade	88.13*	4.07

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level

chose "I take time to be sure I know the answer before I say things in class" for the "most like" item, and "People seem to think I'm rather nice looking" as the "least like" item.

In both of the comparison studies, the children chose the same "most like" item that was chosen by the New Mexico students, and the children in Georgia chose the same "least like" item with a greater frequency; however, the item relating to personal contribution on school or community projects received only one less choice by the students from Georgia. The "least like" choice selected as characteristic by the children in the Louisiana study was "I can usually take a joke on myself without feeling bad." The equal likelihood hypothesis was rejected for all "most like" and "least like" choices for Pentad 19 in the Georgia study, but was affirmed for all "least like" choices among the select groups of children in New Mexico and Louisiana.

Table 4-3 presents a comparison of means and standard deviations for the personal-social orientation scores obtained on the Child Self-Description instrument in the three studies which were compared. The children who reported on this instrument in the Georgia and New Mexico studies received very similar personal-orientation scores in all groups. These scores were somewhat higher than the scores of children who participated in the study in Louisiana.

Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale

The Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale (Appendix D) was adapted from Taylor's Personality Scale of Manifest Anxiety (1941), which was designed to measure anxiety in adults. Castenada, McCandless, and Palermo adapted this instrument to form a Child's Scale of Manifest Anxiety and used it in a study with fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students. There are 42 anxiety items in this instrument, and 11 items designed to provide an index of the subject's tendency to falsify his responses to the anxiety items. In responding to the "L" scale items, 9 specific items should have "no" answers and 2 should be marked "yes." Some researchers have deleted data when the "L" scale score was higher than five on the 11 items. "L" scale scores obtained were below that set for validity for all groups in the New Mexico study. The index of the level of anxiety is obtained by adding all items outside the "L" scale which were answered "yes."

Table 4-1 includes means, standard deviations, and tests of significance for manifest anxiety scores obtained from the fourth- and sixth-grade Spanish-surname migrant students who participated in this study. Table 4-18 reports comparisons of the same data with that obtained in the Georgia and Louisiana studies and tests of significance of of differences in scores. Higher anxiety scores will be

TABLE 4-18

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SELF-CONCEPT SCORES OF SELECT GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS

MANIFEST ANXIETY

Study		Group					
		A	B	A+B	C	D	C+D
New Mexico		(123)	(89)	(212)	(122)	(94)	(216)
	$\bar{X}$	21.11	23.32	22.04	20.16	20.88	20.47
	s	5.57	6.39	6.03	6.41	6.07	6.27
Georgia		(65)	(60)	(125)	(76)	(70)	(146)
	$\bar{X}$	18.39	21.33	19.81	17.42	17.34	17.38
	s	7.25	8.50	7.97	7.31	7.98	7.62
Louisiana		(54)	(68)	(122)	(69)	(106)	(175)
	$\bar{X}$	15.89	18.91	17.57	18.52	20.44	19.69
	s	10.50	9.59	10.11	6.65	7.40	7.20

noted for the New Mexico children in all groups. The disadvantaged Negro children in Louisiana reported the lowest manifest anxiety scores for fourth-grade students, but sixth-grade boys and girls received higher scores than did sixth-grade boys and girls in the Georgia study.

Achievement Tests

The Stanford Achievement Tests, Intermediate I and Intermediate II, were used in this study in order to parallel the collection of data in the Henton and Johnson study. The results from these tests were also used by individual schools for the purposes of local and Title I reporting, and for teacher awareness of individual and class academic increments and needs.

Table 4-19 reports grade placement scores of the various subtests compared to grade placement scores on the same subtests for students participating in the Louisiana and Georgia studies. Comparisons of these scores for fourth- and sixth-grade boys and girls in the three studies showed higher grade placement scores for all groups of children in the Georgia study, with one isolated exception. The New Mexico fourth-grade boys scored slightly higher on word meaning. It will also be noted that grade placement scores for the students participating in the Louisiana study were generally lower than scores of students for the other two

TABLE 4-19

MEAN ACHIEVEMENT GRADE PLACEMENT SCORES OF SELECT GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPILS

Group	Subtest					
	Word Meaning	Paragraph Meaning	Spelling	Total Lang.	Arith. Comp.	Arith. App.
New Mexico						
4th Grade	3.49	3.37	3.50	3.28	3.56	3.79
6th Grade	5.08	5.09	5.54	4.85	4.85	5.21
Georgia						
4th Grade	3.45	4.00	4.00	4.30	4.00	4.20
6th Grade	6.50	6.30	6.60	6.80	5.90	6.35
Louisiana						
4th Grade	3.10	2.96	3.40	2.40	3.30	3.00
6th Grade	4.75	4.75	5.65	4.70	4.65	4.20

groups. The only exception to this observation was noted in the spelling scores for sixth-grade girls.

California Test of Mental Maturity

The *California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity* is an abridgement of the earlier *California Test of Mental Maturity*. The items of this test have been subjected to both content validity and construct validity, and the test is considered to be an appropriate instrument for appraising mental development or mental capacity. This test was administered to all fourth- and sixth-grade boys and girls present on a given day in the five elementary schools participating in the study. The results of the language and non-language subtests and total I.Q. scores are reported in Table 4-20. Data from the Louisiana and Georgia studies are also presented for comparison. The I.Q. scores of the Spanish-surname migrant children are similar to scores of children who participated in the Louisiana study. The fourth- and sixth-grade children in Georgia, whose mental abilities were appraised by administration of the same instrument, scored higher than did children in the Louisiana or the New Mexico studies.

Testing Relationship Hypotheses

An important expectation of this study was that there is not significant relationship between self-concept and

TABLE 4-20

MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR CALIFORNIA SHORT-FORM TEST OF MENTAL MATURITY QUOTIENTS FOR SELECT GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS

Variables				Groups	
Intelligence Factor		A	B	C	D
New Mexico:					
Language	$\bar{X}$	90.49	92.33	92.75	90.67
	s	15.75	14.55	15.16	15.11
Non-Language	$\bar{X}$	88.19	91.34	95.08	96.72
	s	18.75	18.42	16.46	16.28
Total I.Q.	$\bar{X}$	90.35	91.83	93.75	92.53
	s	15.64	14.55	15.16	14.67
Louisiana:					
Language	$\bar{X}$	94.3	97.3	94.8	88.9
	s	13.3	11.5	17.3	12.8
Non-Language	$\bar{X}$	86.4	93.5	95.8	91.9
	s	15.9	19.4	20.0	14.3
Total I.Q.	$\bar{X}$	89.8	94.2	94.6	89.7
	s	13.4	15.1	17.1	13.2
Georgia:					
Language	$\bar{X}$	105.5	120.7	104.3	108.0
	s	18.8	24.0	19.4	16.2
Non-Language	$\bar{X}$	102.3	102.3	103.6	105.6
	s	25.2	27.6	21.1	20.1
Total I.Q.	$\bar{X}$	105.4	102.7	104.1	106.6
	s	26.8	24.8	18.0	17.0

measures of academic achievement, manifest anxiety, and intellectual ability. Pearson's product-moment multiple correlation was used to show the relationship between self-concept and other variables. The basic formula used in the calculation of the product-moment coefficient is:

$$r_{xy} = \frac{\Sigma xy}{N_s X_s Y_s}$$

However, hand-calculation techniques were not necessary, and raw score correlations were reported by computer programs. Table 4-21 reports the relationship of self-concept with each other variable. It will be noted that there were variations in size of groups; therefore, correlation coeffecients necessary for significance at the .01 and .05 levels vary. The assigned values for significance at the .05 level were .195 for groups A and C, .219 for group B, and .205 for group D. Correlation coefficients were significant at .254 for groups A and C, at .283 for group B, and at .267 for group D at the .01 level of confidence.

Table 4-21 reports correlations of self-concept scores with other variables. It will be noted that there is a tendency toward a positive correlation between self-concept and other variables, but in all instances except in correlations with intelligence factors measured among fourth-grade boys and girls, ideal self scores, and manifest anxiety among fourth-grade girls, the correlation was not significant. The hypotheses of no significant relationship between self-concept and other variables is affirmed for both boys and girls of the sixth grade, and for correlations between self-concept and the personal-social orientation score for all groups of children participating in the test and in other isolated instances.

The correlation between self-concept, as measured by the instruments used in this study, and academic achievement scores showed a positive tendency, but was not significant except in the case of arithmetic scores for fourth-grade boys.

Tables 4-22 and 4-23 are duplications of tables of correlations of self-concept and other variables for the Georgia and Louisiana studies.

V. SUMMARY

Self-Concept Hypotheses (Table 4-1)

The mean self-concept scores of fourth-grade boys were not found to be significantly different from those of sixth-grade boys.

The mean self-concept scores of fourth-grade girls were not found to be significantly different from those of sixth-grade girls.

TABLE 4-21

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SELF-CONCEPT AND INTELLIGENCE, ACHIEVEMENT AND MANIFEST ANXIETY FOR SELECT GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS

(NEW MEXICO STUDY)

Variable	Group A(123)	 B(89)	 C(122)	 D(94)
Intelligence				
Language I.Q.	.257**	.239**	.099	.091
Non-Language I.Q.	.302**	.153	.032	.097
Total I.Q.	.253*	.237*	.099	.105
Achievement				
Language	.064	.184	.091	.035
Arithmetic	.073	.218*	.088	-.095
Ideal Self	.609**	.461**	.434*	.192
Personal-Social Orientation	-.172	-.099	-.234	.015
Manifest Anxiety	.066	.326**	-.073	.067

* Significant at the .05 level
** Significant at the .01 level

TABLE 4-22

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SELF-CONCEPT AND INTELLIGENCE, ACHIEVEMENT, AND MANIFEST ANXIETY FOR SELECT GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS

(Georgia Study)

Variable	Group A(65)	B(60)	C(76)	D(70)
Intelligence				
Language I.Q.	.306**	.179	394**	.004
Non-Language I.Q.	.376**	.113	346**	-.038
Total I.Q.	.278*	.154	411**	-.009
Achievement:				
Language	.525**	.039	.341**	.101
Arithmetic	.281*	.190	269*	.035
Ideal Self	.311**	-.037	.496**	.241*
Personal-Social Orientation	.014	.027	.158	-.072
Manifest Anxiety	.354**	-.299*	-.458**	-.216**

* Significant at the .05 level
** Significant at the .01 level

TABLE 4-23

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SELF-CONCEPT AND INTELLIGENCE, ACHIEVEMENT, AND MANIFEST ANXIETY FOR SELECT GROUPS OF ELEMENTARY PUPILS

(Louisiana Study)

Variable	Group			
	A(50)	B(58)	C(65)	D(91)
Intelligence				
Language I.Q.	.159	.057	453**	.139
Non-Language I.Q.	.093	-.053	327**	.169
Total I.Q.	.046	-.083	416**	.199
Achievement				
Language	.031	.107	.294*	.371**
Arithmetic	.249	.-013	.344**	.268*
Ideal Self				
Personal-Social Orientation				
Manifest Anxiety	.058	.126	-.300*	-281**

* Significant at the .05 level
** Significant at the .01 level

The self-concepts of fourth-grade boys are not significantly different from those of fourth-grade girls

The self-concepts of sixth-grade boys are not significantly different from those of sixth-grade girls.

Self-Description Hypotheses

The self-description hypotheses were rejected. In describing characteristics "most like" and "least like" themselves, the items selected were significantly different from that to be expected by chance. There were also significant differences in choices made by boys and girls and by fourth-grade students as compared to choices made by sixth-grade students on almost all of the items in each of the pentads analyzed.

Relationship Hypotheses (Table 4-21)

Although there was a positive correlation of self-concept scores with achievement scores in each of the subtests, a significant correlation was found only between self-concept scores and arithmetic scores of fourth-grade girls.

A significant correlation was found between mean self-concept scores of fourth-grade girls and their mean scores on the non-language subtest of California Test of Mental Maturity. Correlations between self-concept scores and language and non-language factors were significant at the

.01 level for fourth-grade boys, and between self-concept and language factors at the .05 level for fourth-grade girls.

No significant relationship was found between measures of self-concept and intellectual ability or academic achievement among sixth-grade boys and girls.

The correlation coefficient of .325 between self-concept scores and manifest anxiety scores among fourth-grade girls was significant at the .01 level.

No significant relationship was found between self-concept scores and manifest anxiety scores among sixth-grade students.

Comparison Hypotheses (Table 4-2)

The comparisons of self-concept data obtained from the Spanish-surname migrant students who participated in this study with data obtained in Georgia and Louisiana are reported in Table 4-2. The mean self-concept scores of fourth-grade boys and girls in the New Mexico study were three to four points higher than those of fourth-grade boys and girls participating in the Louisiana study, and seven to nine points lower than the scores of the disadvantaged white children in Georgia. The sixth-grade boys and girls scored three points below their Louisiana counterparts, and eight and twelve points below the sixth-grade boys and girls who participated in the study in Georgia. The standard deviation of the Louisiana students was somewhat greater in each group.

The mean self-concept scores of Spanish-surname migrant fourth-grade boys were significantly different from that of disadvantaged white fourth-grade boys. The test score of 4.47 was significant at the .01 level.

No significant difference was found when comparing the self-concept scores of Spanish-surname migrant fourth-grade boys with those of disadvantaged Negro fourth-grade boys.

The mean self-concept scores of Spanish-surname migrant fourth-grade girls were found to be significantly different from that of disadvantaged white fourth-grade girls.

No significant difference was found between the self-concepts of Spanish-surname migrant fourth-grade girls and disadvantaged Negro fourth-grade girls.

The mean self-concept scores of Spanish-surname migrant sixth-grade boys were found to be significantly different from that of disadvantaged white sixth-grade boys.

The mean self-concept scores of Spanish-surname migrant sixth-grade boys were not found to be significantly different from those of disadvantaged Negro sixth-grade boys.

The self-concepts of Spanish-surname migrant sixth-grade girls were found to be significantly different at the

.01 level from those of disadvantaged white sixth-grade girls, and significantly different at the .05 level from those of disadvantaged Negro sixth-grade girls.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purposes of this chapter are to summarize the study, to present conclusions, and to recommend research and educational actions as implied by the findings of this study.

I. SUMMARY

Rationale for the Study

A review of literature suggested that self-concept is one of the most important dimensions to be considered in the education of a child. It was reported that self-concept is developed from the individual's own phenomenological field which consists of the "persisting ways he sees himself." (Perkins, 1957). It was suggested that self-concept can be measured, and that intellectual ability, achievement, and general adjustment are related to self-concept. Further, the literature reviewed suggested that the need exists for research centered around the development and measurement of self-concept among children. (Wylie, 1961).

The review of literature also reported that the history of American people is one of constant and restless movement in search of "greener pastures." It was suggested that negative self-concepts and poor mental health are evident in the lives of migrants whose earnings rarely provide for the barest essentials, and whose environment is "unreliable, unjust, and harsh." (Jersild, 1968). A review of literature further revealed that the above mentioned problems are multiplied for those migrants for whom English is a second language. It was reported that some ten-thousand children either live in New Mexico and leave their homes each year, following agricultural work with their parents, or come to this state from other areas and spend some time here during peak harvest seasons and then move on to other harvests.

The review of literature relevant to migration and self-concepts supported the previous suggestion that the need exists for research centered around the development and measurement of self-concepts, and that this need is especially evident among Spanish-surname children of migratory workers.

Specific Purposes of This Study

The purposes of this study were to measure and analyze the self-concepts of selected fourth- and sixth-grade Spanish-surname migrant children in New Mexico, and to determine the relationship of their self-concept to other variables. It was a further purpose of this study to compare the findings in regard to self-concept and relationship to other variables among these minority-group children with the findings of similar studies involving disadvantaged white children and disadvantaged Negro children in Georgia and Louisiana in parallel grades.

Procedure

The *Self-Concept Battery*, including *Self-Concept* vs *Ideal Self*, *Child's Self-Description Scale*, and the *Child's Manifest Anxiety Scale* were administered to all children who were present in fourth- and sixth-grade levels in five elementary schools on a given day. The *Stanford Achievement Test* and *California Test of Mental Maturity* were administered on earlier dates.

The tests were administered by classroom teachers with the assistance of bilingual teacher aides. Means, standard deviations, "t" tests for significance, frequency distributions, chi square, and Pearson correlation coefficients between self-concept scores and other variables were obtained. Data were compared to findings of the Louisiana and Georgia studies by means of comparison tables and "t" tests for significance in differences between mean self-concept scores.

Hypotheses and Findings

Hypotheses were divided into four categories: self-concept hypotheses, self-description hypotheses, relationship hypotheses, and comparison hypotheses. Hypotheses in the first three categories were primarily concerned with the analysis of data obtained from the 428 Spanish-surname migrant students participating in this study. However, tables were presented when needed for facility of comparisons to the findings in the Louisiana and Georgia studies.

Self-concept scores of fourth- and sixth-grade boys and girls were not found to be significantly different regardless of sex or grade.

Student choices on self-description items were significantly different from that to be expected by chance. There were also significant differences in choices made by boys from those made by girls, and age and grade significantly affected choices.

The conclusions from the relationship hypotheses were not as consistent as the findings mentioned above. The only significant relationship between measures of self-concept and academic achievement among fourth-grade Spanish-surname migrant students was at the .05 level in correlating self-concept scores with arithmetic scores among fourth-grade girls. However, the tendency was toward a positive correlation of these variables among all groups, and for both language and arithmetic factors except in the case of arithmetic scores for sixth-grade girls which showed a negative correlation of .095.

A significant relationship was reported between measures of self-concept and intellectual ability among Spanish-surname migrant fourth-grade students.

No significant relationship was reported between measures of self-concept and academic achievement or intellectual ability among sixth-grade Spanish-surname migrant students.

No test for significance of difference between academic scores of students in the three studies was applied. However, a comparison of mean grade placement scores is presented in Table 4-19. It will be noted that with the exception of the mean grade placement of fourth-grade students on the word-meaning subtest, the students in the New Mexico study placed consistently higher on all subtests than the students participating in the Louisiana study, and lower than their counterparts who participated in the Georgia study.

A significant relationship was found between measures of self-concept and manifest anxiety among fourth-grade Spanish-surname migrant girls.

A significant relationship was found between measures of self-concept and manifest anxiety among fourth-grade Spanish-surname migrant girls.

The analysis of data revealed no significant relationship between measures of self-concept and manifest anxiety among the sixth-grade students participating in this study.

An analysis of data revealed an almost consistent difference in the self-concepts of children participating in the New Mexico study from self-concept scores of disadvantaged white children in Georgia, but non-significant differences from self-concept scores of the students participating in the Louisiana study. The mean self-concept scores of fourth-grade boys and girls were reported between the scores of fourth-grade boys and girls of the other two studies. Sixth-grade boys and girls participating in the New Mexico study were reported somewhat lower than the comparison scores of the Louisiana study, and significantly lower than those of students participating in the Georgia study. Mean self-concept scores of students participating in the New Mexico study were found to be significantly different from those of students participating in the Louisiana study only among the scores reported for sixth-grade girls.

The mean self-concept scores of students participating in the New Mexico study were found to be significantly different from mean self-concept scores of students participating in the Georgia study.

II. CONCLUSIONS

Self-Concept

Although the correlations between the mean self-concept scores, intelligence and academic achievement were not as highly significant as might be anticipated from the review of literature, the tendency toward a positive correlation supports the research of Lecky (1945), Syngg and Combs (1949), Koppitz (1957), Levine and Wardell (1962), and others that self-concept is closely related to all behavior.

If a child feels that he cannot achieve, he will respond only to situations congruent with his self-perceptions.

The self-concepts of children are affected not only by poverty, but by mobility and language problems. Exactly which of these persisting problems are most damaging to perceptions of self was not an expected outcome of this study, but is a question which might be considered in further research.

Comparisons

In comparing the findings of this study with those of the Bledsoe and Garrison (1963) and Henton and Johnson (1964) studies, it was found that the students responding to the instruments used in this investigation generally had lower self-concepts, lower grade placement scores, and rated lower on the California Test of Mental Maturity than did students in the Georgia study, and higher than did students in the Louisiana study.

III. IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION

The child's self-perception, behavior, and performance appear to be closely related to community and family mores and general welfare. Positive self-concept development, therefore, should be an essential element of the curriculum for all children. The migrant child's task in developing positive self-concepts will become more difficult with an increasing number of moves unless some way can be found to relieve him from rejection, hostility, and aggression. The migrant child for whom English is a second language is even further removed from the dominant culture of the English-speaking community.

If we are to fulfill our responsibility to teach "all the children of all the people" and if we are to perpetuate the democratic way of life with its inherent belief in the dignity of the individual, then we must provide appropriate educational experiences and extend a sense of dignity to the lives of migrant children and other culturally and economically deprived learners.

We must realize that reforms cannot be achieved in the educational system unless the general society in which the school operates is also somewhat transformed. School should not be conducted without reference to home and community; but, efforts should be made to get all existing agencies to work together to focus on the alleviation of physical needs and educational deficits of children of migrant workers.

Children who can claim no state as home, should become wards of the federal government, and reimbursement should be made to the local educational agency for expenditures incurred in the education of migrants.

Schools should be kept open in the summer in areas which have high concentration of migrants, and educational and health services should be provided for those who will be in one place for only a few days. Encouraging a child to read during the summer and providing him with reading materials at his level of ability may help him to achieve at a level nearer to his own age and grade when he enters school for a longer period of time in the fall.

Oral language development and social experience opportunities should be stressed in the early grades. Kindergarten and day care centers for young children should be provided in every area where a concentrated number of migrants are at work. These youngsters should not only be taken out of the fields, but also should be involved in oral language development programs and social experiences appropriate for their ages. Children should be fed nourishing meals at the day care centers.

Perhaps the ideal program for the education of children of migrant workers has not been and may never be developed. However, many facets of existing programs are worthy of emulation. The following recommendations should be considered in developing special programs for these disadvantaged youngsters:

Meeting Academic Needs

1. Individual tests should be administered to determine instructional levels and skill deficiencies.

2. Classes should be small; individual tutoring should be arranged for students whose test results indicate this need.

3. Extended day activities should be provided wherever feasible. If children are transported long distances and extended day is not possible, teachers may provide individual tutoring and small group instruction before school and at noon.

4. Materials that are new to the child should be used as success can seldom be predicted when using materials with which the child has previously failed.

5. Saturday and evening classes may need to be provided in some communities.

6. Opportunities for achievement with many media should be provided--not just reading and writing.

7. Help from experts in different areas of the learners' interests should be provided.

8. Cultural enrichment activities should be afforded the child. He should be given the opportunity to contribute, from his own heritage and his own experimental background, to programs including drama, folk dance, and folk music.

9. English should be taught as a second language to Spanish-speaking children.

10. Non-graded classes appear to be best suited to the educational needs of migrants.

Meeting Physical Needs

1. Adequate clothing should be provided. Community clothing banks, local service clubs, and special funds for migrant children should be able to fill the clothing needs.
2. Hot meals should be provided at no cost to the migrant child when his parents are unable to pay.
3. Breakfast programs should be included when possible.
4. Classes in body care, sanitation, and personal grooming should be part of the curriculum.
5. Dental and medical services should be extended to migrant children.
6. Preventive immunizations should be given.

Meeting Emotional Needs

1. Structured programs that aim directly at developing positive self-concepts should be included in the daily curriculum.
2. Absenteeism should be noted and home visits made when possible.
3. Warm greetings and goodbyes help the new student to feel that he belongs.
4. Birthdays should be remembered.
5. Buddy clubs relieve feelings of anxiety for newcomers.
6. Occasional seating changes help children to feel a part of the group.
7. Recognition of outside achievements are especially helpful in working with the low-achieving student.
8. Rotation of class officers and room responsibilities should be made to include the migrant.

9. Individual talks with the child help him to adapt to new situations.
10. Children should be included in policy making.

Meeting Family Needs

1. Adult Basic Education, night and Saturday classes should be scheduled.
2. Parent members should be on advisory committees to discuss family, school, and community problems.
3. Counseling services should be provided for the entire family.
4. Vocational classes should be open to parents so that they may be trained for more stable jobs.
5. Social and welfare services should be extended to the migrant family.

Educational opportunities for children of migrant workers can be improved by the development of special programs and ungraded systems, specialized teacher education programs, and better school facilities. However, we must not view the problems of migrant children and their families in bits and pieces; we must be willing to seek to understand all the facts and persistent problems related to mobility and minority group membership.

In developing programs for the total education of migrant students, each child should be viewed as he can become, and constant and consistent efforts should be made to afford him opportunities that will help him to move away from negative self-concepts and forward toward his perceptions of the ideal self. Only by special concern for the educational and emotional maturity of each individual can we hope to aid the Spanish-speaking migrant child to become a well-adjusted, productive citizen in the mainstream of American society.

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APPENDIX A

INFORMATION SHEET

NAME____

ADDRESS_____________________________________

SCHOOL____________________ GRADE 4 5 6

DATE OF BIRTH_______________________________

ATTENDED THIS SCHOOL 1 2 3 4 5 6 REPEATED GRADES 1 2 3 4 5 6

FATHERS OCCUPATION__________ MOTHERS OCCUPATION__________

FATHERS EDUCATION__________ MOTHERS EDUCATION__________

NUMBER OF BROS.____ NUMBER OF SISTERS____ RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE____

INTELLIGENCE CALIF. FROM__________ OR OTHER__________

Language I.Q.:
Raw Score________ MA________ CA________ IQ________ GP________

TOTAL I.Q.__________________ TOTAL GP__________________

Non Language:
Raw Score________ MA________ CA________ IQ________ GP________

Achievement: Reading Vocabulary - Raw Score________ GP________

Reading Comprehension - Raw Score________ GP________ R. total & CP___

Arithmetic Reas.: Raw Score__________ GP__________

Arithmetic Fund.: Raw Score__________ GP__________

Arithmetic Total: GP__________

Mech. of English: Raw Score__________ GP__________

Spelling: Raw Score__________ GP__________

Language Achievement: GP__________ Battery GP__________

Any other test data:________________________________

APPENDIX B

Self-Concept Scale

There is a need for each of us to know more about what we are like. This is to help you describe yourself and to describe how you would like to be. There are no right or wrong answers; each person may have different ideas. Answer these according to your feelings. It is important for you to give your own honest answers.

Think carefully and check the answer that tells if you are like the word says: Nearly Always, About 1/2 the Time, or Just Now and Then. In the second column, check the answer if you would like to be like the word says: Nearly Always, About 1/2 the Time, or Just Now and Then.

THIS IS THE WAY I AM				THIS IS THE WAY I'D LIKE TO BE		
Nearly Always	About 1/2 the Time	Just Now and Then		Nearly Always	About 1/2 the Time	Just Now and Then
			Friendly			
			Obedient			
			Honest			
			Thoughtful			
			Brave			
			Careful			
			Fair			
			Mean			
			Lazy			
			Truthful			
			Smart			
			Polite			
			Clean			
			Kind			
			Selfish			
			Helpful			
			Good			
			Cooperative			
			Cheerful			
			Jealous			
			Sincere			
			Studious			
			Loyal			
			Likeable			
			A good sport			
			Useful			
			Dependable			
			Bashful			
			Happy			
			Popular			

APPENDIX C

Child Self-Description Scale

Instructions: We want to know more about what boys and girls your age are like. Here are a lot of things that boys and girls might say about themselves, their interests and likes and dislikes. Read carefully each group of five things and decide which one tells most what you are like; then mark it with a + in the margin. Then find the one which is least like you and mark it with a -. Sometimes it may be hard to make up your mind between several of these things, but you can always find one that is a little more like you than the others, and one that is a little less like you. Be sure to mark just one + and one - in every group of five things before going on. Don't spend a lot of time deciding; just mark the ones you think of first. There are no right or wrong answers. Each person is different and should say what is true for him. You do not need to write your name, so mark the questions as truthfully as you can.

Which of these is your favorite school subject? Which one do you like least?

______1. reading
______2. arithmetic
______3. history
______4. science
______5. art

Which of these things would you like to be when you are older? Which least?

______6. scientist
______7. reporter
______8. office manager
______9. actor
______10. engineer

Here are some things which many of you will expect to do later on. Which is most important to you? Which least?

______11. go to college
______12. get married someday
______13. get a job right after high school
______14. travel a lot
______15. make a great deal of money

Which of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?

______16. look older than my age
______17. slow-moving, easy-going
______18. small, delicate build
______19. strong, solid build
______20. quick and active

______21. good at sports
______22. good looking
______23. know how to do interesting things
______24. usually a leader in groups
______25. good in school work

______26. have a good imagination
______27. can make people laugh
______28. willing to take chances
______29. know many people
______30. polite and courteous

______31. lively, full of fun
______32. friendly and helpful
______33. have good ideas
______34. dependable and serious
______35. make up my mind quickly

______36. stick to a job until it's finished
______37. get very excited about things
______38. always neat and careful
______39. cannot be fooled easily
______40. have a good memory

Which of these things tells most what you are like? Which one is least like you?

______41. I usually go up to talk to a new pupil at school.
______42. I'm pretty sure of what I want to do when I'm older.
______43. I'm usually chosen to be in school plays and programs.
______44. I get along with my teachers better than most kids do.
______45. I'm usually the one who thinks up new games and things to do.

______46. I don't like to have to try new games at parties.
______47. I get nervous when I talk to teachers.
______48. It's hard to be nice to people I don't like.
______49. I don't think we learn very important things in school.
______50. I don't care much for team games.

______51. I usually pick out my own clothes.
______52. I read a lot for fun.
______53. I like to run and play hard.
______54. I like to sing or speak in front of people.
______55. I like to be the leader of games.

______56. I think about a lot of dangerous things.
______57. I have to be very careful about my health.
______58. I'm not doing as well as I should in school work.
______59. I don't like my first name.
______60. It bothers me a lot to lose at games.

______61. I spend a lot of time keeping neat and attractive.
______62. I've helped to plan a lot of parties.
______63. I save most of my spending money.
______64. I've had better luck than most people I know.
______65. I spend a lot of my time on my hobbies.

______66. I think a lot about mistakes I've made.
______67. Some kids think I'm too bossy.
______68. I have a lot of bad dreams.
______69. People treat me like a baby too much of the time.
______70. People hurt my feelings a lot.

______71. I like to play in team games against other schools.
______72. I can usually get kids to stop arguing and make up.
______73. I'd rather figure things out for myself before asking for help.
______74. I'm practically never sick.
______75. My friends spend a lot of time at my home.

______76. My ideas don't turn out very well.
______77. I wish I had better looking clothes.
______78. Sometimes I can't make myself do things I like, even when I'm invited to do them.
______79. It's hard to make friends with the people I like best.
______80. I think most grown-ups are too strict.

_____81. I generally do my work around the house without being told what to do.
_____82. My parents usually try to give me the things I want.
_____83. I usually try to get my folks' advice before I make up my mind about things.
_____84. My folks are interested in helping me with my school work.
_____85. At home, I usually help decide what the family is going to do.

_____86. I don't like to borrow or lend things.
_____87. When I read a very sad story, I can't help crying a little.
_____88. I don't care much about dogs or other pets.
_____89. I have my best times with boys and girls who are younger.
_____90. I'd rather do things with grown-ups--it's boring to play with kids all the time.

_____91. I take time to be sure I know the answer before I say things in class.
_____92. I can usually take a joke on myself without feeling bad.
_____93. I've worked on projects to raise money for school or community drives.
_____94. I usually tell people when they have done something well.
_____95. People seem to think I'm rather nice looking.

APPENDIX D

Children's Scale

Directions: Read each statement carefully. Put a circle around the word "Yes" if you think it is true about you. Put a circle around the word "No" if you think it is not true about you.

Yes No 1. It is hard for me to keep my mind on anything.

Yes No 2. I get nervous when someone watches me work.

Yes No 3. I feel I have to be best in everything.

Yes No 4. I blush easily.

Yes No 5. I notice my heart beats very fast sometimes.

Yes No 6. I like everyone I know.

Yes No 7. At times, I feel like shouting.

Yes No 8. I wish I could be very far from here.

Yes No 9. Others seem to do things easier than I can.

Yes No 10. I am secretly afraid of a lot of things.

Yes No 11. I feel that others do not like the way I do things.

Yes No 12. I would rather win than lose in a game.

Yes No 13. I feel alone even when there are people around me.

Yes No 14. I have trouble making up my mind.

Yes No 15. I get nervous when things do not go the right way for me.

Yes No 16. I worry most of the time.

Yes No 17. I worry about what my parents will say to me.

Yes No 18. I am always kind.

Yes No 19. Often I have trouble getting my breath.

Yes No 20. I get angry easily.

Yes No 21. My hands feel sweaty.

Yes No 22. I have to go to the toilet more than most people.

Yes No 23. Other children are happier than I.

Yes No 24. I always have good manners.

Yes No 25. I worry about what other people think about me.

Yes No 26. I have trouble swallowing.

Yes No 27. I have worried about things that did not really make any difference later.

Yes No 28. My feelings get hurt easily.

Yes No 29. I worry about doing the right things.

Yes No 30. I am always good.

Yes No 31. I worry about what is going to happen.

Yes No 32. It is hard for me to go to sleep at night.

Yes No 33. I worry about how well I am doing in school.

Yes No 34. My feelings get hurt easily when I am scolded.

Yes No 35. I often get lonesome when I am with people.

Yes No 36. I am always nice to everyone.

Yes No 37. I feel someone will tell me I do things the wrong way.

Yes No 38. I am afraid of the dark.

Yes No 39. It is hard for me to keep my mind on my school work.

Yes No 40. Often, I feel sick in my stomach.

Yes No 41. I worry when I go to bed at night.

Yes No 42. I tell the truth every single time.

Yes No 43. I never get angry.

Yes No 44. I often do things I wish I had never done.

Yes No 45. I get headaches.

Yes No 46. I often worry about what could happen to my parents.

Yes No 47. I get tired easily.

Yes No 48. I never say things I shouldn't.

Yes No 49. It is good to get high grades in school.

Yes No 50. I have bad dreams.

Yes No 51. I am nervous.

Yes No 52. I often worry about something bad happening to me.

Yes No 53. I never lie.

VITAE

Geneva B. Gillmann was born to James and Estelle Blackwell on July 4, 1914, near Austin, Texas. She attended rural schools in West Texas during the primary grade years, and transferred to a small-town high school at the seventh-grade level. She was graduated from Miles, Texas, High School in 1932, and from San Angelo Junior College in 1934. She interrupted her formal educational pursuits by marriage and did not again enroll in an institution of higher learning, except for correspondence course work, until 1947, when she attended a summer school session at Howard Payne College, Brownwood, Texas. She accepted substitute teaching positions at Miles High School, and taught one year in Roswell, New Mexico, and two years in Salt Lake City, Utah, before receiving a Bachelor of Science degree in Elementary Education from Brigham Young University in 1959. She taught physically-handicapped and emotionally-disturbed children in San Angelo, Texas, from 1959 to 1966, during which time she attended night and Saturday graduate classes. She received a Coe Foundation American Studies grant from Abilene Christian College, Abilene, Texas, for summer study in 1961, and received a Master of Science degree in Education from that institution in August, 1962. She was accepted into a doctoral program in curriculum and instruction at the University of New Mexico in September, 1966, and worked as a graduate assistant in the teacher education program at that institution until 1968. She assumed the responsibilities of Coordinator of New Mexico Follow Through Programs while teaching a graduate course in language arts at the University of New Mexico during the summer of 1968, and she became assistant director of New Mexico Migrant Education Programs, New Mexico State Department of Education, in October of that year. At the completion of requirements for the Doctor of Education, May, 1969, she retains the position with migrant education programs of New Mexico.